/SOCIAL SCIENCES

INTERNATIONAL
LABOUR OFFICE

Vol. LIX, No. 1
JANUARY 1949

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INTERNATIONAL LABOUR REVIEW

In this issue . . .

The International Industrial Safety Movement.

The Labour Policy of the Chinese Government and its Reactions on Industry and Labour, by TA CHEN.

The Czechoslovak Five-Year Plan.

Italian Agricultural Emigration to France.

Statistics: Cost of Living and Food Prices — Unemployment and Employment — Methods of Computation of Statistics.

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The I.L.O.

The International Labour Organisation is an association of nations, financed by Governments and democratically controlled by representatives of Governments, of management and of labour organisations.

Its purpose is to promote social justice in all the countries of the world. To this end it collects facts about labour and social conditions, formulates minimum international standards, and supervises their national application.

The machinery of the Organisation consists of

The International Labour Office, which acts as a secretariat, a world information centre, and a publishing house. It is staffed by experts drawn from many different countries, whose knowledge, experience and advice are available to all the nations which are Members of the Organisation. It has branch offices and correspondents in many countries.

The Governing Body, composed of 16 Government representatives, 8 representatives of management and 8 representatives of labour, which is the executive council of the Organisation and exercises general supervision over the work of the Office and frames its budget.

The International Labour Conference, which is a world parliament for labour and social questions. Each national delegation to the annual meetings comprises four delegates, two representing the Government, one representing management, and one representing labour; each of these three sections speaks and votes independently, so that all points of view find full expression.

The Conference adopts minimum international standards which are formulated in special international treaties called *Conventions*, and in *Recommendations*. These are based on careful fact-finding and discussion. As a two-thirds majority of the Conference is required for their adoption, they represent the general agreement of informed world opinion. Since the first Conference in 1919 the Conference has adopted 90 Conventions and 83 Recommendations. These deal with hours of work, paid vacations, women's work, the protection of children, prevention and compensation of industrial accidents, insurance against unemployment, sickness, old age and death, colonial labour problems, conditions of seamen, etc. The substantive provisions of the Conventions and Recommendations, together with other documents and information relating to international labour standards, have been brought together in a volume entitled *The International Labour Code*, published by the Office in 1941.

The decisions of the Conference are not automatically binding. Governments must submit the Conference standards to their national legislatures. If a legislature accepts a Convention, the Government is bound to apply the Convention and to submit an annual report showing how it is applying it, which is scrutinised by special I.L.O. committees.

The Philadelphia Conference in 1944 adopted a Declaration, affirming the primacy of the social objective in national and international policy. Instruments for the amendment of the Constitution of the Organisation were adopted by the Paris Conference in 1945 and by the Montreal Conference in 1946; these instruments, having obtained the necessary number of ratifications, have come into force.

By an agreement which was ratified by the Montreal Conference and subsequently by the General Assembly of the United Nations the International Labour Organisation has entered into relationship with the United Nations as a specialised agency.

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EDITORIAL NOTE

From January 1949 *Industrial and Labour Information*, which was incorporated in the *Review* in 1940, is again being issued as a separate publication under the title *Industry and Labour*, appearing twice a month. The *Review* thus reverts to its pre-war form. As in the past, it will contain articles, prepared either in the Office or by outside experts, depicting the evolution of social policy internationally and in the different countries ; documentary papers, under the heading " Reports and Enquiries ", including analyses of official reports of general interest and the results of enquiries undertaken by the Office in preparation for conferences or committees, in response to special requests for information or as a contribution towards solving concrete problems of social policy, etc. ; statistics of the cost of living, unemployment, employment, wages and hours of work, which the Office alone publishes in such a complete and systematic form ; and, finally, an international bibliography.

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The International Labour Office is not responsible for opinions expressed in signed articles

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INTERNATIONAL LABOUR REVIEW

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The International Industrial Safety Movement

Systematic co-operation between national industrial safety movements may be said to have begun with the establishment of the International Labour Organisation, which provides machinery for the international exchange of information on safety matters, for international research and, in particular, for the development of international standards of law and practice. The activities of the Organisation in this field are reviewed in some detail in the following pages, after a brief description of the origins of the international safety movement and of the problems involved. An account is also given of various other international safety organisations and activities. The article notes in conclusion the directions in which further development is desirable.

ORIGINS

THE MOVEMENT to protect workers against occupational risks of accident and disease can be traced back to antiquity, but it was not until the beginnings of the machine age that it underwent any appreciable development. Early landmarks are the British Acts of 1802 for the preservation of the health and morals of apprentices and others employed in cotton mills and other factories, of 1833 creating a Government factory inspectorate, of 1844 respecting the fencing of machinery, provision of other safeguards and reporting of accidents, and of 1872 respecting mining; the Belgian Act of 1810 concerning the inspection of mines, smelting works and similar undertakings and the Imperial Decree of the same year concerning dangerous, unhealthy or offensive undertakings; the Danish regulations of 1832 respecting the inspection of steam boilers; and the Industrial Code of the North German

Federation, issued in 1869. In the United States, Massachusetts was the first State to pass an Act for the prevention of accidents in factories (1877) and also the first State to require accidents to be reported (1886). Pennsylvania initiated mining safety legislation in the United States by passing an Act on ventilation in 1869. By 1890 a score of States had regulations of some kind for the prevention of accidents in factories, on railways and in mines. Most of those relating to factories were brief and were confined to fire precautions and machine guarding. Connecticut went a little further by requiring the fencing of openings. Massachusetts, New York and Pennsylvania had additional provisions on such matters as cleaning of machinery in motion, elevator machinery, and fencing of vats, etc., containing hot substances. The mining safety regulations were rudimentary, the most detailed being those of Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Pennsylvania and West Virginia.

The voluntary safety movement, at first sporadic, began to acquire a definite organisation with the formation of national and local safety associations, the first of which was the Mulhouse Accident Prevention Association formed in Alsace in 1867. Other European countries slowly followed this example. The German mutual accident insurance associations, which function as safety associations, came into existence in 1884. The Belgian Manufacturers' Association for the Prevention of Industrial Accidents was founded in 1890, and a similar Italian organisation in 1894. The National Safety Council of the United States of America dates from 1913. In Africa, Asia, Australasia and Latin America national safety councils did not appear until some years after the foundation of the International Labour Office.

A modest beginning of international co-operation in accident prevention may perhaps be seen in the International Industrial Accident Congress held at Paris on the occasion of the Universal Exhibition of 1889. The Congress was organised by a committee of thirty persons having some concern or interest in accident prevention and compensation, appointed by a French Ministerial Order of 26 December 1888. The Congress, which was concerned both with prevention and with compensation, was divided into three sections, the first on technical questions, the second on statistics and administration, and

the third on economics and legislation. The papers read in the Technical Section comprised a general review of safety devices and a report on the German Accident Prevention Exhibition of 1889 at Berlin. The Congress was attended by delegations from Belgium, Brazil, Canada, England, Italy, Norway, Portugal, Rumania, Spain and Switzerland, as well as France.

The delegates expressed an opinion in favour of the creation of a permanent international body to assemble the experience gained in the different countries and suggest the best procedure to be followed in the future, and as a result a permanent international committee was set up in 1890. One of its specific tasks was to endeavour to find a basis for international accident statistics. By 1891 the committee had a secretariat and 600 corresponding associates in different countries and aimed to become an International Industrial Accident Office.

A Second International Industrial Accident Congress was held at Berne in September 1891, when several papers on accident prevention were read. The subjects included " The Role of Private Initiative in the Organisation of Accident Prevention ", " Accident Statistics in Switzerland ", " Prerequisites for Rational Statistics of Industrial Accidents ", " Industrial Accident Legislation in the United States of America ", " The Question of Industrial Accidents in Denmark, Norway and Sweden ", " The Question of Industrial Accidents in Belgium ", " Some Factory Accidents in Great Britain ", " The Question of Industrial Accidents in Austria ", and " The Need for Official Inspections in Factories ".

Further conferences of the same kind were held at Milan in 1894, at Brussels in 1897 and at Paris in 1900, when eighteen countries were represented.

Another step in the international organisation of accident prevention may be seen in the foundation of the International Association for the Legal Protection of Workers in 1898. Under the auspices of this Association an International Labour Office was established at Basle, and in 1902 it began the publication of an international *Bulletin* of labour legislation, which included numerous safety regulations. The Association itself also took an interest in industrial safety and accident statistics.

By the time of the Paris Peace Conference of 1919, industrial safety had assumed such importance that the authors of the Treaty of Versailles specifically mentioned in the preamble to

its labour clauses " the protection of the worker against . . . injury arising out of his employment " as one of the measures for the urgently required improvement of conditions of labour to be promoted by means of the International Labour Organisation.

Industrial Safety Problems and Techniques

Scope of Industrial Safety Activities

The protection of the worker against injury arising out of his employment is not a simple matter.

In the first place, there are hundreds of millions of workers to protect in all kinds of circumstances and millions of accidents of all kinds a year to prevent. It should perhaps be made clear at the outset that the sum total of injuries to persons, damage to property and economic loss to communities caused by industrial accidents is enormous but at the same time very largely avoidable.

In the second place, while the broad principles of accident prevention may be the same for all industries and for all countries, the detailed practical application of those principles varies enormously from industry to industry, and may vary considerably from country to country. The problems of accident prevention in coal mining, for instance, are entirely different from those in agriculture ; conditions at ports differ widely from those in building operations ; lumber camps are unlike factories ; and among factory industries, steel works, sawmills, cotton mills and chemical works, to mention only a few, all have problems quite their own. Differences in national conditions introduce further complications in the promotion of accident prevention in the various industries. Techniques must be adapted to mentality, climate and educational level, etc., and what is recommendable at one place may not be at another.

Even in a single industry the amount and complexity of technical equipment to be made safe may be very considerable. Voluminous codes of safety regulations have been issued for steam plant, electrical installations and woodworking machinery, for example. Fire prevention, machine tools, hoisting appliances, gas cylinders, and explosive and flammable

substances are also the subjects of many detailed regulations. The reasons for voluminous codes of safety regulations for coal mining are of rather a different order. The dangers of coal mining are many and the problems to which they give rise are complex, but they do not reside so much in the equipment used as in the nature of the workplace. Some of the gravest dangers, falls of ground and explosions of coal dust or firedamp, have called for scientific research rather than for mechanical safeguards, and it may be said that more scientific research has been devoted to coal mining than to any other industry.

More recently, too, the workers themselves have been receiving attention and the human element in accident causation has been found to be even more complex, and perhaps even more important, than any other. Some means of dealing with it are seen in the thousands of works safety organisations now in existence, in works medical services, in psychological research institutions, safety training institutions, safety education courses, safety propaganda activities and so forth.

Types of Accident Prevention Problems

It will be seen from the above that the problems of accident prevention in industry fall into three broad classes, which may be called technical, medical and psychological. Examples of technical problems are those involved in the design and construction of factory premises, the safeguarding of machinery and other factory equipment, the technique of roof control in coal mines, the devising of precautions against harmful gases and dusts, the design and installation of ships' holds, hatches and loading gear, the provision of safe working conditions in tunnelling operations and the safeguarding of electrical installations.

Psychological problems, which have only recently come to the fore, are those directly concerned with the human element in accident causation and include education and training in safe habits of work, and also in supervision and management; psychological methods of vocational guidance and selection; and means of dealing with the workers' mental and emotional troubles. It may seem a far cry from the safeguarding of shafting to the treatment of neuroses, but the relationship between neuroses and accidents is neither imagi-

nary nor negligible. The Medical Research Council of the United Kingdom has reached the rather disquieting conclusion that some 10 per cent. of factory workers suffer from definite and disabling neurotic illness and that a further 20 per cent. suffer from minor forms of neurosis.[1] And it is only too well known that persons who are ill are more liable to accidents than those who are well. This brings us to medical methods of accident prevention, which aim, among other things, at eliminating the physically unfit from occupations unsuitable and therefore particularly dangerous for them—and for their work mates.

Accident Prevention Techniques

The means employed in the different countries to grapple with these three types of problem may be classified as follows :

(1) Legislation—the laying down of enforceable rules concerning the design, construction, maintenance, inspection, testing and operation of industrial equipment, duties of employers and workers, training, first aid, etc.

(2) Standardisation—the laying down of official, semi-official or voluntary rules for the safe construction of certain industrial equipment, personal protective devices, etc.

(3) Inspection—the means of ensuring that official rules are obeyed.

(4) Technical research—the investigation of the qualities of harmful materials, study of machine guards, testing of respiratory protective devices, investigation of means of preventing roof falls, gas and dust explosions in mines, investigation of the most suitable materials and designs for hoisting ropes and other hoisting equipment, etc.

(5) Medical research—the investigation of the physical characteristics conducive to accidents, etc.

(6) Psychological research—the investigation of the psychological characteristics conducive to accidents, etc.

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[1] MEDICAL RESEARCH COUNCIL, INDUSTRIAL HEALTH RESEARCH BOARD, Report No. 90 : *The Incidence of Neurosis among Factory Workers* (London, 1947).

(7) Statistical research—to ascertain what kinds of accidents occur, in what numbers, to what types of people, from what causes, etc.

(8) Education—the teaching of safety in engineering colleges, trade schools, apprentices' courses, etc.

(9) Training—the instruction of workers, and especially new workers, in safe practices, etc.

(10) Propaganda—a kind of education, but more in the nature of an emotional appeal than systematic instruction.

(11) Insurance—the application of financial stimuli to promote accident prevention.

The machinery employed to apply these techniques is complex : it usually combines both governmental and private agencies ; and it is linked vertically from the individual factory to a national organisation for a single industry, and horizontally from factory to factory in the same district and from industry to industry in national or large regional areas.

The Functions of the International Labour Organisation

It should be clear from the preceding pages that the task awaiting the Industrial Safety Section of the International Labour Office when it was set up in 1921 was both vast and complex. It had to be prepared to serve all industries in all countries, to handle all accident problems and to be familiar with all means and machinery of accident prevention.

In the performance of this task various methods have been applied—the preparation of international regulations, in the form of Conventions, Recommendations and Model Codes of safety regulations, such as those for docks, building operations, coal mines and factories ; the publication of technical handbooks on dangerous machinery, substances and operations, such as power presses, acetylene, celluloid, lifts and dock work ; the dissemination of safety information of all kinds, as in the periodical *Industrial Safety Survey* ; special research at the request of Governments, safety associations, trade unions, etc. ; liaison with safety associations all over the world ; assistance to Governments in drafting safety regulations, etc.

The internal machinery of the International Labour Organisation for dealing with these various aspects of its industrial safety work is made up of the Industrial Safety Section of the Office, expert advisory committees, tripartite technical conferences and the International Labour Conference.

To assist the Office in the preparation of the safety handbooks, the Governing Body in 1925 appointed an International Committee of Safety Experts. This Committee, originally a subcommittee of the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene, later became the Correspondence Committee on Accident Prevention. In course of time, the functions of the Committee were broadened and it was entrusted with the drafting of Model Codes of safety regulations. It may also be consulted on points raised by the industrial committees of the International Labour Organisation.

The Correspondence Committee now consists of twenty-nine members drawn from nineteen countries. All the members are among the most distinguished safety experts in their own countries—many are high officials of labour ministries or inspectorates—and together they constitute what is undoubtedly the most highly qualified body of safety authorities in the world. Quite apart from their technical services, the members of the Committee have proved invaluable to the Office both in a liaison capacity and as authoritative sources of information.

For special purposes the Governing Body has supplemented the Correspondence Committee by other committees of experts, namely, those for automatic couplings on railways and safety in coal mines.

The tripartite technical conferences are international conferences of representatives of Governments, employers' organisations and workers' organisations, usually experts, convened by the Governing Body of the International Labour Office for the discussion of matters of a highly technical nature or having technical aspects, with the object of securing international agreement. The first conference of this kind for the discussion of a safety topic was held in 1948 to consider a draft Model Code of safety regulations for industrial establishments.[1] Another is to be held in 1949 to consider a similar code

[1] See below, pp. 15-17.

for coal mines, and it is possible that others will take place in the near future to discuss safety in civil engineering and other industries.

International Regulations

A period of twenty-seven years, during six of which its activities were crippled by the war, has not been sufficient for the International Labour Organisation to elaborate international safety regulations and recommendations covering the totality of risks in all industrial work. In framing such texts regard has had to be paid to various considerations such as the magnitude of the risks in question, the number of workers likely to be affected, the development of national legislation and the practical value of international legislation. The matters so far selected for international regulation by way of Convention, Recommendation or Model Code include: inspection, and principles governing the prevention of industrial accidents, both matters of fundamental and quite general importance; the enormous mass of manufacturing industries in which millions of accidents occur every year; and some of the largest and most dangerous non-manufacturing industries, such as stevedoring, building construction, civil engineering and coal mining.

The international texts relating to these matters are briefly commented upon below.

General Principles for the Prevention of Industrial Accidents.

The Recommendation concerning the prevention of industrial accidents, adopted by the International Labour Conference in 1929, deserves special notice as being the first comprehensive statement of an industrial safety policy to be formulated by any international body. It begins by advocating the development of statistical, physical, physiological and psychological research, including research into vocational guidance; and the standardisation of industrial accident statistics. It then deals in detail with co-operation between State inspectorates, employers' and workers' organisations and other bodies in the prevention of accidents, with special

reference to works safety organisations. This co-operation should cover all phases of safety education and propaganda. Next the Recommendation sets out the general principles that should be embodied in safety legislation, and lastly it suggests the part to be played in accident prevention by insurance institutions. All the principles laid down in the 1929 Recommendation are still valid, and no national safety organisation that omits any of them can be called complete.

Ample evidence of the soundness of the principles laid down in the Recommendation is furnished by national practice. All the highly industrialised countries without exception apply them in varying degrees, and as other States become industrialised they too put them into practice. That this is so has been convincingly demonstrated in Part I, " National and International Organisation ", of the report on *The Law and Practice relating to Safety in Factories* published by the Office.[1] In this volume accounts are given of the industrial safety movement in fourteen countries representative of all five continents ; and whichever country is considered—say, Chile, India, the Netherlands, New Zealand, South Africa or the United States—it can be seen that the movement is based on the principles of the Recommendation.

Inspection.

The Recommendation of 1923 concerning labour inspection first of all declares that it should be the principal function of inspection systems to secure the enforcement of laws and regulations relating to conditions of work and protection of the workers, including matters of health and safety. As regards safety in particular, inspection should be increasingly directed towards securing the adoption of the most suitable methods for preventing accidents. This can be achieved, for example, by the investigation of accidents and the study of means of preventing recurrences, by encouraging the collaboration of employers, managements and workers in safety activities, by the promotion of technical improvements and by scientific research.

[1] This report was prepared in connection with the drafting of the Model Code of Safety Regulations in Industrial Establishments and issued in draft form in 1947. The final edition is in the press.

The Recommendation thus lays down valuable guiding principles of an eminently practical character for the safety activities of labour inspectorates, and it is satisfactory to be able to record that in several countries these principles are fully applied. Perusal of the annual reports of the inspectorates of some Canadian provinces, the Netherlands, New Zealand, the Scandinavian countries, the Union of South Africa, the United Kingdom and some States of the U.S.A., to cite only a few, will convince the reader both of the soundness of the principles of the Recommendation and of the devotion of inspectors to the cause of safety in applying them.

The international provisions concerning inspection were strengthened in 1947, when the International Labour Conference adopted a Convention concerning labour inspection in industry and commerce, a Recommendation concerning labour inspection and a Recommendation concerning labour inspection in mining and transport undertakings. A substantial part is allotted to safety in the Convention, and special provisions on various safety matters are included in the first of the two Recommendations. Part I, for example, relates to the notification of the opening of factories to the inspectorate and the submission of plans for new establishments, plant and processes for the opinion of the inspectorate as to health and accident risks, while Part II deals with collaboration between the inspectorate, employers and workers in matters of safety and health. These provisions may be said to embody the best practice of the industrial countries and to give a sound lead to those less highly industrialised.

Dockers.

For the protection of dock workers the International Labour Conference in 1929 adopted a Convention (revised in 1932) and two Recommendations, one on reciprocity between countries ratifying the Convention and the other on consultation with workers' and employers' organisations in the drawing up of safety regulations. A further Recommendation was adopted in 1932 for expediting reciprocal arrangements.

The Convention of 1932 is a detailed technical document. It first deals with workplaces on shore and their approaches, more especially as regards lighting and the fencing of openings

and elevated passageways. Next, rules are laid down concerning means of transport and access to ships. As regards the ships themselves, the Convention provides for the safety of hatches and access to holds and shaft tunnels, and numerous provisions are devoted to hoisting appliances. These provisions are largely concerned with the inspection and testing of cranes, winches, blocks, shackles, ropes, chains, hooks, etc. ; the marking of the maximum safe working load on them ; and the annealing of chains. The technical provisions are followed by a set of working rules for loading and unloading operations. The concluding provisions of the Convention are concerned with the handling of dangerous goods and with first-aid and rescue arrangements.

The Convention has been ratified by twelve countries—Canada, Chile, China, India, Italy, Mexico, New Zealand, Pakistan, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Uruguay—and its influence can be seen in the legislation of several others. Since its adoption in 1932, regulations for the protection of dockers against accidents have been issued or amended in Australia (1937, 1941, 1944), Belgium (1936), Brazil (1940, 1942), Bulgaria (1936), Cuba (1943), the Dominican Republic (1941), Finland (1946), Germany (1934), the Netherlands (1938, 1939), Norway (1939, 1940), Poland (1939) and Yugoslavia (1938).

To give effect to the Recommendations on reciprocity, two international conferences were held in London, in 1932 and 1935. The first [1], at which eight countries were represented, was of an exploratory character, but the second [2], attended by representatives of sixteen countries, reached definite conclusions on a number of points, including the testing and examination of hoisting machines and gear on board, the annealing of chains and other similar gear, certificates and records, the marking of safe working loads, safety factors and administrative matters.

One of the recommendations of the second conference was that the Office should publish a handbook on safety in dock work. This was begun in 1937, but owing to the war publication

[1] See *Industrial Safety Survey*, Vol. VIII, No. 5, September-October 1932, p. 134.

[2] *Idem*, Vol. XII, No. 2, March-April 1934, p. 42.

was delayed until 1945.[1] It analyses the risks and indicates suitable precautionary measures, more especially as regards hoisting appliances, ropes, hatches and stevedoring operations.

Marking of Weight on Heavy Packages Transported by Vessels.

The Convention of 1929 on the marking of the weight on heavy packages transported by vessels requires every package or object of 1,000 kg. (one ton) or more gross weight consigned for transport by sea or inland waterway to have its gross weight plainly and durably marked on the outside before it is loaded on a ship or other vessel. Responsibility for complying with this requirement rests solely on the Government of the country from which the package or object is consigned.

The Convention, which aims at obviating the risks to men and machinery inherent in the handling of heavy loads of unknown weight, has been ratified by thirty-five countries and on the whole has been very well applied.

Building Construction.

A comprehensive series of texts was adopted by the International Labour Conference in 1937 for the protection of building workers. These comprise a Convention relating chiefly to scaffolds and hoisting appliances and first aid ; a Recommendation embodying a detailed Model Code of safety regulations covering the same field as the Convention ; a second Recommendation, on inspection in the building industry ; a third, on safety organisation in the industry ; and a fourth, on vocational education.

An array of statistics could be quoted to show that building construction is one of the most dangerous industries and that there was every justification for an international effort to reduce its heavy accident toll.[2]

Although the Convention has been ratified by only three countries—Finland, Mexico and Switzerland—the over-

[1] See INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE, Studies and Reports, Series F(2), No. 10 : *Safety in Dock Work* (Montreal, 1945).

[2] Numerous accident statistics are given in Report VIII prepared for the 20th Session of the International Labour Conference, Geneva, 1936 : *Safety Provisions for Workers in the Building Industry with reference to Scaffolding and Hoisting Machinery* (Geneva, 1936).

whelming majority of countries have regulations for the matters dealt with in the Convention and the Model Code.

Civil Engineering.

When the texts on the protection of building workers were being elaborated, it was realised that they left many constructional activities out of account, and the understanding was that texts covering the civil engineering branch of the construction industry would be prepared later. This is now being done and a Model Code of safety regulations for civil engineering works is in preparation.

The Code is a comprehensive document with provisions for plant and equipment, such as hoisting and transport equipment, electrical equipment, machinery and hand tools and floating plant ; for operations, such as demolition, excavation, quarrying, blasting, erecting work of various kinds, tunnelling and work in compressed air ; for fire prevention and protection ; and for health and safety organisation.

Civil engineering operations are relatively dangerous and cause large numbers of accidents every year. The Code should therefore provide valuable guidance to Governments and to the industry itself in the framing of safety regulations and in the adoption of safety measures.

Coal Mines.

On the subject of underground work in coal mines the Office in 1939 prepared the texts of four Recommendations, constituting a comprehensive body of safety measures on much the same plan as that adopted in 1937 for the building industry. The first Recommendation embodied a Model Code of safety regulations and the other three related respectively to inspection, safety organisation and vocational education.

Many of the hazards of coal mining are well known, but it may not be generally realised that some 5,000 coal miners are killed and some 200,000 injured every year. Further, a report prepared by the Office in 1939 [1] shows that in the United States, for example, the fatal accident rate in coal

[1] *Safety Provisions for Underground Work in Coal Mines*, Vol. I : *Legislation* (Geneva, 1939).

mining for 1935 was over seven times the rate for manufacturing industries as a whole — 2.19 accidents per 1,000 man-years, as compared with 0.29. The corresponding non-fatal rates were 116.0 and 42.98, a ratio of 2½ to 1. Even more striking figures could be cited for other countries.

It is not surprising, therefore, that the Office, which found strong support for its views among the international federations of mine workers' unions, felt that international action was greatly needed to improve the standard of safety in coal mines. The Governing Body shared this view, and in 1937 appointed a committee of experts from the principal coal producing countries to assist the Office in drafting the Model Code. The preparation of the Code had to be abandoned on the outbreak of war in 1939, but it has lately been resumed and will be completed by the Office with the help of a small number of experts, who will meet for this purpose at the end of January 1949. For final discussion and approval the Code will be submitted to a tripartite technical conference to be held next autumn.

The Code as approved by the experts and the proposed technical conference will be an authoritative document which should be useful to all countries and of the utmost value to countries that are only beginning to develop their coal resources. It comprises 24 chapters dealing not only with technical matters, such as explosives and shotfiring, haulage, winding, ventilation, firedamp, coal dust and electrical installations, but also with management, occupational qualifications and safety organisation.

Industrial Establishments.

The Model Code of Safety Regulations for Industrial Establishments is a monumental work comprising 229 sets of regulations and running to over 400 pages. It deals in very great detail with factory premises, factory equipment of all kinds, flammable, explosive, toxic and other harmful substances, factory operations, health, personal protective equipment, vocational selection, medical examinations, medical aid and safety organisation.

The preparation of such a Code was first suggested in a resolution of the Second Conference of American States

Members of the International Labour Organisation, held in Havana in 1939, which requested the Governing Body to consider the possibility of preparing a Model Code of safety regulations for factories as soon as circumstances permitted. In accepting this resolution the Governing Body was influenced by two main considerations : the stimulus given by the war to industrial development in a large number of extra-European countries and the likelihood that the large-scale destruction of industrial plant and equipment in the war zones would be followed by far-reaching rebuilding programmes. If any further arguments were needed to justify the preparation of a Model Code of safety regulations for factories, they would be found in the above-mentioned report on *The Law and Practice relating to Safety in Factories*, which gives statistics indicating that several million men, women and young persons are killed and injured every year in factory accidents. This may seem a staggering total but it is not a wild guess. The manufacturing industries of the United States alone were responsible for 786,000 accidents in 1944.[1] The addition of over 282,000 factory accidents in the United Kingdom in the same year [2] brings the total to over a million. A second million could easily be reached by adding the figures for Belgium, France and the Netherlands.

It may be interesting to compare the losses of United Kingdom armed forces, excluding merchant seamen, during the recent war, with factory injuries over the same period. The monthly losses of the armed forces averaged 3,462 killed, 752 missing, 3,912 wounded and 2,541 prisoners, or 10,667 in all, while the monthly average of casualties in the factory industries (including docks and shipyards) was 107 killed and 22,002 injured, or 22,109 in all.[3]

Here again, there would seem to be wide scope for an international safety code that could be taken as a guide by Governments, industries and all others concerned with factory safety.

The Model Code of Safety Regulations for Industrial Establishments was drafted by Mr. Swen Kjaer, former Chief of the Industrial Accidents Division, United States Bureau of

[1] UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS: *Work Injuries in the United States during 1944*. Bulletin No. 849, 1945.

[2] *Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories for 1944.*

[3] *The Law and Practice relating to Safety in Factories, op. cit.*, Part I, p. 1.

Labor Statistics, in conjunction with the International Labour Office. The draft was revised by the Correspondence Committee on Accident Prevention, with some assistance from the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene, and submitted for final revision and adoption to the Tripartite Technical Conference which met at Geneva from 27 September to 16 October 1948. The Conference, at which twenty-five countries were represented, approved the whole Code, with the exception of three or four regulations, on which small panels of experts will be consulted by the Office.

It seems not improbable that out of this general Code will develop specialised codes of safety regulations for particular industries. The preparation of two such codes, for the textile and chemical industries respectively, has already been recommended by the International Labour Organisation committees for these industries.[1]

Protection of Power-Driven Machinery.

The Recommendation of 1929 concerning responsibility for the protection of power-driven machinery lays down the principle that it should be prohibited by law to supply or install any machine intended to be driven by mechanical power and to be used within the territory of the country concerned, unless it is furnished with the safety appliances required by law for the operation of machines of the type in question.

The question of the sale and hire of machinery that is not properly guarded is a very important one and it has long engaged the attention of the International Labour Office. The recent Tripartite Technical Conference on Safety in Industrial Establishments passed a resolution looking towards the preparation of a Convention prohibiting the sale and hire of machinery and other industrial equipment that is not properly protected.

Meanwhile, the Recommendation of 1929 has not remained a mere pious expression of opinion, for several countries, including France, Germany, India, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the U.S.S.R., have issued regulations prohibiting the sale or hire of unguarded

[1] See below, p. 22.

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machinery.[1] Moreover, the subject has been considered sufficiently important by the Scandinavian countries to warrant joint discussions with a view to the standardisation of certain guards in the three countries.[2]

Commercial Undertakings.

The Tripartite Conference just referred to also expressed the view that the question of preparing a Model Code of safety regulations for commercial establishments should be considered by the International Labour Office.

Technical Monographs

The monographs on safety matters published by the Office were conceived as handbooks, carrying the highest international authority, on some of the commonest problems of accident prevention, and so compiled as to be of service to all countries. Each was drafted by an expert, and all published since 1925 have received the approval of the Correspondence Committee on Accident Prevention. Originally it was planned to issue them at the rate of two a year and so constitute a substantial safety encyclopaedia, but this has unfortunately not proved possible and only ten have appeared as separate volumes up to the present. Three more have been published in *Industrial Safety Survey.*

Four deal with dangerous machinery—woodworking machinery, hydro-extractors, metal-working presses and abrasive wheels ; four with other industrial equipment—chains, portable electric equipment, electric lamps, and lifts ; two with dangerous substances—acetylene and celluloid ; two with industrial operations—spray painting and stevedoring ; and one with automatic couplings on railways. Five more are in preparation or planned—on ladders, foundry operations, corrosive liquids, protection of the head and eyes and exhaust systems.

It is difficult to estimate the practical contribution of the handbooks to industrial safety, but it can be said that they have

[1] See *The Law and Practice relating to Safety in Factories, op. cit.*, Part II, p. 487.

[2] See *Industrial Safety Survey*, Vol. XXIII, No. 4, October-December 1947, p. 121.

been generally well received, and as far as can be judged, some of them, the one on spray painting, for example, have had some influence on national legislation.

Industrial Safety Survey

Since 1925 safety news of international interest has been published in *Industrial Safety Survey*. Up to 1939 the *Survey* was published once every two months in English, French and German. Since then it has been published quarterly, in English only from 1940 to 1943, in English and Spanish since the beginning of 1944, and in English, French and Spanish since the beginning of 1947.

Each issue comprises : (1) a leading article, usually by an expert outside the Office ; (2) notes on safety institutions, associations, museums, etc., all over the world ; (3) summaries or texts of new safety and hygiene laws and regulations ; (4) summaries of factory inspection, mining inspection and similar regular Government reports, and also special reports on particular subjects by official or semi-official bodies ; (5) reviews of noteworthy articles of safety interest in periodicals ; (6) book reviews ; (7) reproduction of new safety posters.

It may fairly be claimed that the *Survey* is the only approximately complete record in existence of the development of safety legislation, institutions and activities during the last twenty years.

There is considerable evidence to show that the *Survey* meets a real need, renders valuable service and is widely appreciated.

Special Research

In the course of twenty-seven years the Office has dealt with hundreds of requests for information of all kinds, received from Government departments, official commissions, safety associations, industrial firms, other public and private bodies and individuals. The Office has also responded to several requests for assistance in drafting national safety regulations.

Some of these requests have entailed a very considerable amount of research work, and an idea of its variety can be

gained from the following examples of the subjects on which information has been desired (as it may also be of interest to indicate the countries from which the requests have come, these are shown in brackets): safety laws and regulations of the Balkan States (Turkey); safety material of a general character for broadcasting purposes (Canada); accident proneness (Australia); acetylene (China); agriculture (Canada, Hungary, United Kingdom); alcohol distilleries (France); boilers (Switzerland); celluloid (United Kingdom); civil engineering (Poland, Turkey, United States); protective clothing (France); accident costs (Netherlands); danger signs (Austria); laws and regulations respecting safety of dock work (France); safety education (Argentina, Australia, Belgium); electrical installations (France); eye accidents (Portugal, United States); ferro-chrome (Belgium); first aid (Poland); gasholders (Ireland); safety goggles (Netherlands, Poland, Switzerland); hoists and lifts (Canada); inland navigation (Turkey); mines (Belgium, South Africa, United Kingdom, etc.); petroleum refineries (Uruguay); safety posters (Colombia, Egypt, Mexico, Spain, etc.); pressure vessels (Austria); sandblasting (Netherlands); shipbuilding (France, Turkey); silos (Greece); spray painting (France, Germany); statistics (numerous countries); textile factories (Poland, Yugoslavia); welding (South Africa).

It will be noticed that this kind of research work ranges over a wide field, and it may be added that it varies in scope from the investigation of a single technical point, such as the use of die castings for abrasive wheel flanges, to the compilation of extensive memoranda, bibliographies and collections of material. A memorandum on safety regulations and inspection systems in coal mining in various countries, prepared at the request of the British Royal Commission on Safety in Coal Mines, took months to complete. Many requests for information entail correspondence with experts in different parts of the world, and the Office is probably in a position to secure the help of the leading authorities on any topic that may be referred to it.

There is ample evidence to show that this research work, the demand for which is steadily increasing, is of considerable use to those for whom it is undertaken.

Liaison

As already indicated, safety associations in the different countries are informed of one another's activities through the medium of *Industrial Safety Survey*, which announces their creation, explains their purpose and scope, describes their activities and reviews their publications. The Office also attends as many of their meetings as it can, but the restrictions imposed by shortages of staff and money make it the exception rather than the rule for the Office to be able to send a representative to a safety meeting. In spite of these restrictions, contact with the safety movement throughout the world has not been unsatisfactory : the Office receives from almost every country practically all publications of safety interest, both those of Government labour departments, inspectorates, research institutions, etc., and those of private bodies active in the safety movement. These are, in fact, the raw material of *Industrial Safety Survey*. A lively correspondence is also maintained with national authorities, safety associations and others interested in safety in all parts of the world.

In short, it may be said that the Office now enjoys a world-wide reputation as a research and information centre on all aspects of industrial safety, and that very liberal advantage is taken of the resources that it makes available.

The Office has also kept in close touch with other international institutions and conferences concerned with safety in transport. These have included the Communications and Transit Organisation of the League of Nations, now replaced by the Transport and Communications Organisation of the United Nations, as regards road transport ; the International Commission for Air Navigation, now replaced by the International Civil Aviation Organisation, as regards air transport ; the International Railway Union, as regards automatic couplings ; and the International Conference on the Safety of Life at Sea, as regards seamen. Arrangements are being made for co-operation in the field of industrial safety between the Office and the new International Organisation for Standardisation, in which many of the leading national standards organisations are represented.

The Industrial Committees

A new avenue for the safety activities of the Office was opened with the establishment of the industrial committees. Up to the present committees have been set up for the building, chemical, coal mining, inland transport, iron and steel, petroleum and textile industries, and the metal trades, and nearly all of them have called for investigations into the safety problems of their industry.

For some of the committees, such as those for chemicals, iron and steel, the metal trades and petroleum, the Office has undertaken a general survey of the situation in the various countries as regards safety legislation, inspection and other activities, outstanding problems and accident statistics. Others, such as the Textiles Committee, have concentrated on a number of specific questions, for instance, lighting, ventilation and the spacing of machinery.

These committees bring the International Labour Organisation into more direct and more intimate contact with individual industries and they provide the Organisation with additional stimuli in its work for industrial safety. Moreover, since the safety techniques of one industry can often be applied in another, it is only to be expected that the work of any one committee in the safety field will be utilised by the others, and that the ultimate result will be a pooling of experiences and efforts for the common good.

It may be noted that all the committees, with the exception of the Textiles Committee, represent industries with comparatively high accident risks, and that from the safety standpoint they have a very wide and important field of activity open to them.

The International Standardisation of Industrial Accident Statistics

An account of the industrial safety activities of the International Labour Organisation would not be complete without some mention of its work for the improvement and standardisation of industrial accident statistics. Statistics are a tool that no accident prevention worker can afford to be without.

The first International Conference of Labour Statisticians, which was convened by the Office in 1923, adopted a series of

resolutions concerning frequency and severity rates and the classification of accidents by industry and occupation, by cause and by other topics.

For present-day accident prevention purposes, the classification of accident causes adopted by the 1923 Conference is not entirely adequate. For instance, each accident is assigned to one cause and one cause only, whereas many accidents are due to a combination of causes ; and among the causes is found " falls of persons ", which are results rather than " causes ".

Experience has shown that accident-cause statistics must be very comprehensive if they are to be of maximum utility. Some countries do publish a great variety of data bearing on accident causation, but the only systematic attempt to provide a statistical scheme adequate for a searching analysis of the real causes of accidents is represented by the *American Recommended Practice for Compiling Industrial Accident Causes*, issued by the American Standards Association in 1941.

Progress towards the international standardisation of accident statistics was resumed when the Sixth International Conference of Labour Statisticians met at Montreal in August 1947. This Conference amended the resolution of 1923 concerning frequency and severity rates, and recognised the need both for a revised classification of accident causes for purposes of accident prevention and for a standard scale for assessing permanent partial disability. If the Governing Body agrees, these two matters will be considered by one of the next international conferences of labour statisticians.[1]

Apart from its work on industrial accident statistics in connection with these conferences, the International Labour Office has published special monographs on the methods in use in different countries for compiling statistics of accidents in rail transport and in coal mining, special studies dealing with the general problem of measuring industrial accident risk, and data from various countries on industrial accidents and risk rates in different fields of economic activity. Since 1940, rates, mostly fatal rates, have been published in the *Year Book of Labour Statistics*.

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[1] See INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE, Studies and Reports, New Series, No. 7, Parts 3 and 4 : *Methods of Statistics of Industrial Injuries* and *The Sixth International Conference of Labour Statisticians* (Geneva, 1947 and 1948).

Other International Organisations and Activities

Side by side with the International Labour Organisation, and sometimes under its auspices, various international bodies have been carrying on activities of many kinds for the prevention of industrial accidents. These bodies include factory inspection conferences, conferences of industrial safety museum administrations, fire prevention and fire fighting organisations, international organisations for particular industries and international groupings of national safety associations.

Factory Inspection

A first regional conference of factory inspection services, organised by the International Labour Office, was held at The Hague in October 1935 for the western European countries. The general subject for discussion was the organisation of factory inspection in industrial undertakings, including collaboration with employers and workers, and the principal basis of discussion was the international Recommendation of 1923 on labour inspection.[1] The meeting formulated conclusions with respect to the general organisation of inspection services; the qualifications, appointment and training of inspectors; the powers and duties of inspectors; reports of inspectors and inspection services; and collaboration with employers and workers. It also addressed a number of requests to the Governing Body of the International Labour Office; in one the Governing Body was asked to convene annual meetings of representatives of the inspection services of the States Members of the International Labour Organisation, and particularly of the European Members; and another urged that the International Labour Office should make every effort to bring about greater international uniformity in the compilation of industrial accident statistics.

At the suggestion of the International Labour Office Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions, a European regional conference of representatives of labour inspection services was held at Vienna from 24 to 28 May 1937. The general question before the conference was again the

[1] See above, p. 10.

organisation of factory inspection in industrial undertakings, including collaboration with employers and workers, and the discussions were again based on the Recommendation of 1923. The conference considered in detail whether labour inspectors should be given power to inflict penalties for contraventions of regulations for the protection of workers, but found it impossible to lay down any universal principle. Approval was expressed of the resolution adopted in 1930 by the International Labour Conference, concerning extended treatment of particular subjects in the annual reports of the national inspection services. It was also suggested that the International Labour Office should arrange for an exchange of annual reports between the various national inspection services, and that the national administrations should print extracts from the annual reports of other countries in their official publications with a view to keeping all concerned in touch with inspection activities everywhere.

Systematic collaboration between the factory inspectorates of Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden has been maintained for many years. It was first decided upon at a meeting of heads of labour inspection departments held at Stockholm in 1927, when the utility of exchanging experiences in matters of industrial safety and hygiene was generally recognised, and it was agreed to hold similar meetings every year and meetings of factory inspectors every three years. The agenda of the general meetings was to include reports on the evolution of protective legislation in the four countries, new technical experiences, the activities of the inspectors and visits to undertakings. The meetings were to be supplemented by a regular exchange of publications and information and the establishment of common plans for the conduct of investigations and practical experiments.

The first conference of inspectors under this arrangement was held at Helsinki in 1928, when the subjects discussed included circular saws and industrial hygiene. The scheme for triennial conferences could not be completely carried out, but further conferences were held in 1934 and 1937. The first was a conference of explosives inspectors of the four countries, held at Stockholm in March 1934 to discuss safety and health questions relating to the storage, transport and handling of explosives, the manufacture of fireworks, flammable liquids,

spray painting, acetylene generators, etc. The second general conference of factory inspectors of the Northern countries was held in 1937. It took place at Copenhagen and was attended by 70 delegates. The agenda included occupational diseases, dust hazards and the general development of co-operation between the Northern countries in industrial safety work.

A recent development in collaboration between these countries in the industrial safety field has been the joint discussion of problems connected with machine guarding. These problems have been considered at conferences held in 1946, 1947 and 1948 at Stockholm, Copenhagen and Oslo, respectively. As already indicated, one important result already achieved is that the Scandinavian countries will endeavour to standardise methods of safeguarding certain classes of machinery.[1]

There has also been some co-operation in the field of inspection on the American continent. At the annual conferences of the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials, which is an organisation covering Canada and the United States founded in 1914, much of the discussion is taken up with factory inspection, and considerable attention has been paid to questions of industrial safety and health, particularly in recent years. Mention may also be made of another American-Canadian joint body, the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, also founded in 1914. This body is chiefly concerned with workmen's compensation, but has also displayed considerable interest in questions of accident prevention.

Another form of international action in the field of inspection is the outcome of a resolution adopted by the International Labour Conference in 1930, in pursuance of which the States Members of the Organisation were requested in 1932 to invite their factory inspection services to give particular attention to the question of the organisation of safety in industrial undertakings. Several inspectorates complied and, on the basis of the information they furnished, a series of articles was published in *Industrial Safety Survey* on the organisation

[1] For further particulars, see " Manufacturers' and Vendors' Responsibilities as regards the Manufacture and Equipment of Machines, Pressure Vessels, etc., with Special Reference to Swedish Legislation and International Trade ", by Hans C. RENNTUN, in *Industrial Safety Survey*, Vol. XXIII, No. 4, October-December 1947, p. 121.

of safety services in industrial undertakings in Sweden [1], Switzerland [2], Poland [3], Hungary [4], and Great Britain.[5]

Similar articles, drawn from other sources, were published on the United States [6] and France.[7]

Industrial Safety Museums

Proposals that the directors of industrial safety museums in various countries should meet for the discussion of questions of common interest were made in 1927 and finally agreed upon on the occasion of the Twelfth Session of the International Labour Conference in 1929. The first meeting was held at Berlin on 27 and 28 September 1929. It was attended by representatives of the British, Danish, Finnish, German, Hungarian, Italian and Netherlands museums [8] and discussed safety museum management in general and safety propaganda in particular. The participants agreed to remain in contact with one another, to hold further meetings and to use the Safety Service of the International Labour Office as an organ of liaison and co-ordination.

A second international conference of directors of industrial safety museums was held at London, on 5, 6 and 7 May 1931.[9] Besides a number of representatives from the British Home Office and its Industrial Museum, delegates from the Belgian, Danish, German, Hungarian, Italian, Netherlands and Swedish museums attended the conference. The agenda included the following items : (1) ways and means of making the museums known to those engaged in industry ; (2) the most satisfactory equipment in regard to staff ; (3) how best to present the principles of industrial health and the methods of securing it.

A third meeting was to have taken place in Milan in 1933, but for reasons connected with the general economic and political situation it was never held.

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[1] *Idem*, Vol. XIII, No. 3, May-June 1937, p. 63.
[2] *Idem*, Vol. XIV, No. 2, March-April 1938, p. 33.
[3] *Idem*, Vol. XIV, No. 4, July-August 1938, p. 101.
[4] *Idem*, Vol. XV, No. 4, July-August 1939, p. 93.
[5] *Idem*, Vol. XV, No. 6, November-December 1939, p. 149.
[6] *Idem*, Vol. XIV, No. 5, September-October 1938, p. 133.
[7] *Idem*, Vol. XV, No. 3, May-June 1939, p. 61.
[8] *Idem*, Vol. VI, No. 1, January-February 1930, p. 9.
[9] *Idem*, Vol. VII, No. 6, November-December 1931, p. 164.

Fire Prevention and Fire Fighting

An international organisation of national fire services was first founded in 1900, but the war of 1914-1918 brought it to an end. A new body, the International Technical Committee for the Prevention and Extinction of Fires, was set up with headquarters at Paris as a result of three international fire prevention congresses held at Paris in 1929, Brussels in 1930, and Paris in 1931. In 1938 the Committee was composed of representatives from twenty European countries.

The Committee's main task has been to develop an international code of fire prevention and extinction rules. It has published a journal, *Revue internationale du feu*, which served as a clearing house for information and an organ of liaison between national fire services.

Up to the outbreak of war in 1939 seven international congresses had been held, the last being at Paris in 1937. These congresses discussed a large number of technical questions, *e.g.*, fire-fighting equipment; explosion risks of refrigerants; fires, explosion risks and precautions in celluloid depots; risks and precautions in spray painting and varnishing shops of industrial undertakings; and fire-extinguishing processes using mechanically produced foam.

There have also been international fire and safety exhibitions, of which the third and latest was held at Paris in 1934.

After the war, the International Technical Committee was revived, and the Eighth International Fire Congress was held at Paris in July 1946, which was largely concerned with the reorganisation of the Committee. Under its new constitution the Committee's aims are the promotion and improvement of the science and practice of fire prevention and fire fighting; the encouragement of research into fire-protection organisation and equipment; the dissemination of information on inventions; and the creation and maintenance of cordial relations between fire brigades and technicians in all countries. The Committee now comprises a Permanent Council and a General Meeting. It does not actually organise the international congresses, but co-operates with the national committees to which this function is delegated. In 1946 some twenty countries were represented on the Committee.

The latest Congress took place at Brussels in September 1948, when discussions were held on fire risks at airports and in the refining, storage and transport of mineral oils. A resolution was adopted suggesting that the International Labour Office should prepare a Convention or a Recommendation on fire prevention and fire fighting in these two domains, and that to this end a joint committee of representatives of the Committee and the Office should be appointed.

National and International Safety Associations

At the British National Safety Congress of 1935 a number of delegates from foreign safety organisations joined with the National Safety First Association in a discussion on international aspects of accident prevention. One outcome of the discussion was an invitation to the Netherlands delegates to explore the possibility of organising an international safety conference in their country.

This conference took place at Amsterdam on 26, 27 and 28 April 1937. About 170 delegates were present from Belgium, China, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Great Britain, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Switzerland, the Union of South Africa, the United States and the International Labour Office. The conference was divided into two sections, one for safety in factories, workshops and the home, and the other for safety in road traffic. In both sections the programme comprised a series of papers, followed by discussions, on various questions of accident prevention.

Further conferences of the same kind were contemplated, but could not be arranged owing to the political situation.

The development of the safety movement in the United States during the last quarter of a century has brought about a growing interest in accident prevention throughout Latin America, and in recent years this has led to the formation of several national safety organisations in Latin American countries.

A further advance was marked by the incorporation of the Inter-American Safety Council, Inc., on 28 March 1938, as an educational, non-profit membership corporation under the laws of the State of New York. It is intended to function as an association of organisations and individuals working to reduce

the number and seriousness of all kinds of accidents, and to become the hub of the safety movement in Latin America. It promotes safety chiefly through the collection and distribution of information on the causes of accidents and well-tried methods for their prevention, and aims at the establishment of independent national councils to carry on the safety movement within the various countries as opportunities occur.

Particular Industries

Apart from the International Labour Organisation, the only official international agencies that have been working for safety in coal mines are the periodical conferences of representatives of national research institutions and experimental stations. In recent years such conferences have been held at Buxton (1931)[1], Montluçon (1933)[2], Dortmund (1935)[3], Brussels (1937)[4], and Pittsburgh (1948). The agenda has been largely concerned with coal-dust and firedamp explosions, mining explosives, shotfiring, mine lighting and rescue apparatus.

A new departure in the international discussion of safety problems in coal mining may be seen in the International Coal Mining Conference organised by the British National Association of Colliery Managers at Harrogate in June 1948. Although not specifically a safety conference, the importance of safety was duly recognised and much of the conference time was taken up with safety topics.[5]

The Eighth International Acetylene Congress, held at Paris in 1923, set up a Permanent International Committee for Acetylene, Autogenous Welding and Allied Industries, one of the functions of which has been to transmit to national and international bodies communications concerning the acetylene and allied industries likely to be of interest to them. In particular, the Committee placed its services at the disposal of such institutions as the League of Nations and the International Labour Office. It has made many important con-

[1] The proceedings have been published by the British Safety in Mines Research Board as paper 74 (1932).

[2] A summary of the proceedings of this conference was published in *Industrial Safety Survey*, Vol. XI, No. 3, May-June 1935, p. 70.

[3] *Idem*, Vol. XIII, No. 5, September-October 1937, p. 127.

[4] *Idem*, Vol. XIV, No. 4, July-August 1938, p. 108.

[5] For details, see *idem*, Vol. XXIV, No. 3, July-September 1948, p. 87.

tributions to health and safety in the acetylene and fusion welding industries, including numerous studies and reports on safety in the manufacture, transport, storage and use of acetylene submitted to the different international congresses.

Safety topics have also been dealt with by international federations of trade unions, for example, those of the coal miners, transport workers and woodworkers. It was the coal miners' unions that first urged the International Labour Organisation to take action to reduce the accident toll in the mines [1]; the transport workers have been interested in such matters as safety of road transport and the introduction of automatic couplings on railways; and the woodworkers have advocated, *inter alia*, the preparation of an international Convention for the protection of workers using power-driven tools in the forestry and woodworking industries.[2]

Industrial Safety Films

As a result of discussions between the International Labour Office and the International Institute of Educational Cinematography at Rome, a Committee on Accident Prevention Films was set up by the two bodies and met at Geneva in December 1929. It was composed of three cinematograph experts and three safety experts.

The Committee recorded the intention of the Rome Institute to engage in worldwide propaganda in favour of industrial safety films and decided to work for the creation of national centres for such films. The Committee's deliberations did not lead to any immediate practical results, but the question of safety films was revived at the First International Congress of Instructional and Educational Cinematography, convened by the Rome Institute in conjunction with the International Institute for Intellectual Co-operation, at Rome in April 1934. The conference passed a number of resolutions advocating the development of safety propaganda by means of films and proposing that the Rome Institute should be the general co-ordinating body for this purpose.

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[1] *Safety Provisions for Underground Work in Coal Mines, op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. iii.

[2] See *Industrial Safety Survey*, Vol. XXIV, No. 3, July-September 1948, p. 87.

Industrial and Scientific Standardisation

It has been mentioned that contact has been established between the International Labour Office and the new International Organisation for Standardisation (I.S.O.), the Council of which held its first meeting at Zurich in June 1947. The Council of the I.S.O. has appointed a special committee to confer with representatives of the Office concerning future co-operation. There are a number of matters in which international standardisation would be of advantage from the standpoint of industrial safety as well as other standpoints, and it is to be hoped that action to this end will be taken in the not too distant future. These matters include machine guards, colours and other markings for the identification of piping systems and compressed-gas cylinders and labelling of containers for toxic and other dangerous substances.

The International Electrotechnical Commission (I.E.C.), whose work has a direct bearing on safety in the design, manufacture and use of electrical equipment, has agreed to affiliate with the I.S.O. and become its Electrical Division.

Future Prospects

It will have been seen that international co-operation in accident prevention took definite shape as long ago as 1889, but was not systematically organised until the establishment of the International Labour Organisation in 1919. This organisation is now the only official body that has a full-time staff engaged in international industrial safety work. Unofficial worldwide organisation, except in a few specialised fields, has scarcely begun. Yet, bearing in mind the great diversity of accident prevention problems and the complexity of the means of attacking them, the time must certainly be considered ripe for far-reaching development in international safety organisation.

In the first place, we may look for developments within the central body, namely, the International Labour Organisation. These might consist in the expansion of the activities of the Industrial Safety Section of the Office and the greater utilisation of the industrial committees as international agencies for the promotion of safety in some of the more

dangerous industries, such as coal mining, logging, construction and heavy engineering.

Such a development should lead to closer and more systematic collaboration between the Office and the organisations concerned with particular aspects of industrial safety, such as the International Organisation for Standardisation.

Other fields in which international co-operation may be expected to develop are those of industrial psychology, medicine and welfare. These are comparatively new sciences, but there is a growing realisation that they are essential to the promotion of industrial safety, and increasing attention is being paid to them by Governments and legislatures, as part of a wider trend towards shifting the emphasis in accident prevention to the human element. The result will be a substantial broadening of the field of industrial safety, as compared with fifty or even twenty-five years ago, and it must be, and is in fact being, accompanied by an expansion of national safety machinery, which in turn will lead to an expansion of the international machinery.

It is further to be anticipated that the Organisation will take the lead in restoring and intensifying the international collaboration of industrial and labour inspectorates which made a promising start before the war.

Lastly, there is much scope for the development and standardisation of industrial accident statistics, especially accident-cause statistics.

Special mention should be made of the national safety organisations of a voluntary character that have done much good work in a large number of countries. Some of them have already met together once in an international conference, which might well be repeated at regular intervals or as occasion demands. These organisations are particularly useful in dealing with aspects of safety that are not readily amenable to regulation, and they would certainly benefit from the interchange of ideas and experiences that can be achieved at international conferences. There is in fact scope for an international association of national safety organisations.

There are thus numerous directions in which international machinery for industrial safety can be expanded. If it is to reach full efficiency, it must, as already suggested, be both extensive and complex.

The Labour Policy of the Chinese Government and its Reactions on Industry and Labour

by

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An article published in the Review *two years ago, discussing the problems met with in administering labour laws in China, drew attention to the need for collecting all available data and eliciting the views of workers' and employers' representatives, with a view to the revision of the Factory Act.*[1] *A contribution to such an enquiry has been made by Professor Ta Chen, who has in recent years been studying the conditions of life and labour of factory workers in a number of cities typical of the various stages of development of Chinese industry. The International Labour Office is glad to publish the following article, in which he analyses the results of his enquiry with special reference to the operation of the more important provisions of the Factory Act and the recently amended Trade Union Act.*[2] *The description of the impact of this legislation on management and labour with which the article concludes is based on numerous interviews with representatives of all categories of employers and workers.*

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. LIII, Nos. 1-2, January-February 1946 : " Some Problems of Labour Law Enforcement in China ", p. 46.

[2] For the text of the Trade Union (Amendment) Act of 13 June 1947, see INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *Legislative Series*, 1947—Chin. 1 ; for a summary of the regulations of 25 March 1948 for the enforcement of the Act, see *International Labour Review*, Vol. LVIII, No. 2, August 1948, p. 223.

General Considerations

THE SOCIAL doctrines of Dr. Sun Yat-sen with regard to the welfare of the Chinese worker have been warmly supported by the Kuomintang (the National People's Party) and by the Government. Their untiring efforts to translate the idealism of the late party leader into practice have resulted in the enactment of labour laws and in the pronouncement of public policies aiming at the regulation of working conditions in modern industry and commerce.[1]

The most fundamental and comprehensive law affecting industry and labour is of course the Factory Act, which was promulgated in 1929 and put into force in 1931. About half a year before the date originally set for its enforcement, certain groups in the country expressed serious doubts as to the extent to which the law could in fact be applied, and at their request the writer undertook a factual study of labour conditions in 228 selected factories in Shanghai in order to throw light on this subject.[2] The results of the enquiry suggested the desirability of introducing the principle of gradual enforcement ; in other words, certain provisions might, with modifications, be applied outright, others should be postponed to later dates, and still others should, for various reasons, be suspended indefinitely. These views were in general accepted by the experts of the International Labour Office who were then visiting China at the invitation of the Chinese Government, and who later assisted the Government to establish the Factory Inspection Service.[3]

During the second World War and shortly after it, the writer was engaged in a study of the life and labour of the factory workers in several Chinese cities, including Kunming, Chungking, Sian, Paochi and Shanghai. In the course of this enquiry,

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[1] An account of these efforts may be found in *idem*, Vol. LII, No. 5, November 1945, pp. 465-478 : " Social Policy in China ", by T. K. Djang.

[2] Ta Chen : *Study of the Applicability of the Factory Act of the Chinese Government* (Shanghai, China Institute of Scientific Management, 1931).

[3] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. L, No. 3, September 1944, pp. 284-299 : " Factory Inspection in China ", by T. K. Djang. For an account of the I.L.O. Mission which visited China during the autumn of 1931, see *idem*, Vol. XXV, No. 5, May 1932, pp. 591-604 : " Towards the Establishment of a Factory Inspectorate in China ", by C. Pône.

covering a period of several years, he received from time to time close co-operation from a number of organisations, such as the Ministry of Social Affairs, the Shanghai Bureau of Social Affairs, the National Resources Commission and the China Branch of the International Labour Office. The data collected will, it is hoped, throw some light on the labour policy of the Chinese Government.

Another basic social measure is undoubtedly the Trade Union Act, which was first proposed by the Kuomintang in 1924, enacted as a national law and enforced in 1929, and revised several times since.[1] This Act, more than any other social law, mirrors the social changes that have taken place in China during the last two decades. Among other things, the events of the last twenty-five years have clearly shown that those who favoured extending the scope of the Act to industrial unions were too optimistic. This was one of the more controversial points at the time, and such inclusion was strongly urged by one of the original drafters of the Act on the ground that the workers should be encouraged to organise on a broader basis than their particular trade or craft, in order to accelerate the social and economic progress of the country.

Furthermore, under the original Act of 1929 any worker satisfying the conditions for membership was free to join a union and to leave it at his choice. In this respect the worker's freedom was very much curtailed during the second World War, and the restriction seems to be retained in the latest revision, made in 1947. This change of the Government's policy has evoked sharp criticism among the more enlightened workers, as well as among the liberal camps of thinkers in China and abroad.

Another group of problems, more complicated in nature, is connected with conciliation, arbitration and the right to strike in labour disputes. Though the principles for dealing with these matters are enunciated in the Trade Union Act, the detailed regulations are set forth in the Settlement of Disputes Act of 1928, a subject not considered here owing to limitations of space.

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[1] The writer contributed actively to the original drafting of the Act in 1924 and to the discussion on the subject in later years. Reference may be made to his article: "The Labour Movement in China", *idem*, Vol. XV, No. 3, March 1927, pp. 339-363.

A review of the labour policy of the Chinese Government as indicated by the operation of the above-mentioned laws may profitably be supplemented by a study of the opinions of managements and workers. Consciously or unconsciously, their reactions to this legislation were reflected in innumerable interviews which the writer and his assistants had with factory managers, engineers, foremen, labour leaders and workers of both sexes in various industries in different cities.

The Operation of the Factory Act

If we select certain significant sections of the Factory Act for special study, we can gain a general impression as to the extent to which it has in fact been applied since it was put into force in 1931. The following analysis, as already mentioned, applies to the cities of Shanghai, Chungking, Kunming, Sian and Paochi.

These cities reflect different stages of the social and economic development of the country. Shanghai is perhaps the most industrialised area. Next comes the city of Chungking, which, being the nation's capital during the war, showed rapid and worthwhile industrial growth, though before the war it was an agricultural area with some commercial importance on the Upper Yangtse. Kunming in south-west China and Sian and Paochi in north-west China are predominantly rural communities, and in these regions modern industry is just beginning. The three groups of cities reveal beyond doubt the extreme complexity of Chinese society, which is a strong argument in favour of treating as premature any attempt to enforce labour laws uniformly throughout the length and breadth of the country.

Scope of the Study

The Shanghai study covered 240 factories in 40 industries, which employed 36,662 men, 54,803 women and 1,506 children. According to the definition given in the Factory Act, child workers are those between fourteen and sixteen years of age, but younger children are known to be employed in some factories. Owing to the lack of a system of registration of births in China, no precise information on ages is available.

In each of the following industries in Shanghai, female workers constituted 50 per cent. or more of all the workers in the industry: tin box making; tobacco; rubber; match making; caustic soda; drugs; wool spinning and weaving; cotton spinning and weaving; hemp; knitting; underwear; ribbon; pencil; towels and blankets. In each of the following industries, child workers formed 5 per cent. or more of all the workers in the industry: shipbuilding; machine manufacturing; metal working; tin box making; needle making; glass; printing; hat making; pencil; electric appliances; and thermos bottles.

The Chungking sample survey covered 68 factories in 9 industries, with 31,747 workers, of whom 23,594 were men, 7,750 women and 403 children. Women and children were relatively more numerous in the textile, tobacco, paper manufacturing and printing industries and in silk filatures.

In Kunming, the study covered 10 industries with 42 factories employing 8,534 men, 1,995 women and 517 children. Women were comparatively more numerous in cotton spinning and weaving, electrical appliance making, and match making. Children were mostly employed in cotton spinning and weaving and match making.

The sample enquiry in Sian and Paochi covered 5 industries and 26 factories (including 6 mines) with 13,142 men workers, 1,597 women and 1,888 children. The women workers were mostly engaged in cotton spinning and weaving, and the children in coal mines and also in cotton spinning and weaving.

Even when modern industry was just beginning in China, public attention was already being called to the seriousness of woman and child labour, as can be seen from the appointment of the Child Labour Commission of Shanghai in 1923.[1] But this question is intimately interwoven with the economic and social network of Chinese society, and no hasty conclusions should be drawn from the scanty data now available.[2] In the present study all that has been attempted in this connection is the above marshalling of certain salient figures of the employment of women and children in the cities under

[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XI, No. 5, May 1925, pp. 665-681: "The Recommendations of the Shanghai Child Labour Commission", by Dame Adelaide ANDERSON.

[2] Cf. TA CHEN: *The Applicability of the Factory Act, op. cit.*, pp. 15-17.

investigation, so as to facilitate the correlation of such data with the differences in industrial development and socio-economic conditions in these cities.

Health and Safety

When the field investigation of the Shanghai factories was made in 1931, the writer's recommendation was that the enforcement of the Factory Act should properly begin with the regulations on health and safety, both because these were of paramount importance to the life of the workers and because they did not involve any substantial outlay of expenditure, thus minimising the possible opposition from tradition-bound employers to the enforcement of the protective labour legislation. These suggestions, which were supported by the experts of the International Labour Office Mission, were accepted by the Government. That they were sound is clear from the fact that the practical enforcement programme of the Act during the last sixteen years has in general been in conformity with them. The sample survey of working conditions in 240 factories in Shanghai made in 1946 under the writer's direction showed that in a number of factories there had been an improvement in the provision made for the workers' health and safety, though in more normal circumstances, even better results could have been expected.

Of the 240 factories reporting, 221 had safety equipment of some sort, 9 had none, and the conditions in 10 factories were unknown. The equipment in question related mainly to the condition of buildings and constructions, their degree of durability and the protection against fire. With regard to the fencing of dangerous machines, the situation seems less satisfactory : 157 factories required fencing, 77 had no regulations on the matter. The periodical reporting of accidents, though prescribed by the Act, has made very slow progress since its enforcement in 1931 ; only 90 factories stated that they regularly reported the fatal accidents to the proper authorities.

The source of a factory's water supply may be taken as a criterion for judging the hygiene conditions in the factory. In Shanghai, the water supply is relatively more sanitary than in many inland towns : 203 factories used the municipal water supply, 33 used well water and 2 used river water.

In Chungking, safety measures to meet war risks were satisfactory, as in the majority of cases strong air-raid shelters —usually tunnels dug deep in the rocks—were provided for the workers. The fire-fighting equipment was adequate in 12 factories. The fencing of dangerous machinery and pulleys was defective. Fire escapes were common but not universal.

As many factories were situated along the two rivers of Chungking, 36 factories in that city used river water and only 18 used the city water supply. A very small number of factories used well water (4) or spring water (3).

As regards the factories of Kunming, relatively less attention was given to health and safety. Air-raid tunnels, though less elaborate and not nearly as strong as those in Chungking, were quite common. Fire escapes were not in general use. The fencing of dangerous machines was almost entirely neglected. Wells seemed to be the most usual source of water supply—in 28 factories out of a total of 42. Ten factories relied on the city water supply and 4 factories used river water.

The safety equipment of the factories in Sian and Paochi was in most cases simple and antiquated, but in one factory it was quite modern. Air raids were not a serious menace; during the time of the enquiry (August 1945), only one factory had this unpleasant experience. Nine factories used well water, 7 used spring water, 3 used river water and only 2 had the privilege of using the city water supply.

Earnings

Since the enforcement of the Factory Act in 1931, the situation with regard to the workers' earnings has passed through four distinct stages, but at no time have the majority of the workers obtained an income sufficient to keep them and their families in comfort, health and decency.

Up to the undeclared Sino-Japanese war of 1937, minimum wage rates should, according to the Factory Act, be based on the living conditions in the localities where the factories were situated. As family budget studies and periodical retail price reports were not available for all industrialised areas, this provision was difficult of realisation.

During the war, when prices soared and inflation went from bad to worse, many factories tried to increase their

workers' income by introducing a complicated system of allowances to supplement wages. Thus wages came to be relegated to a very insignificant place, and the substantial part of the worker's earnings consisted of allowances in the form of basic necessities of life, such as rice, clothing and house rent. Though still insufficient to defray his living expenses, these earnings formed the bulk of his income. This was the situation in many cities in Free China up to Japan's surrender. After that date, the workers in Shanghai in a series of demonstrations and strikes demanded that their pay should amount to the daily basic wage multiplied by the cost-of-living index number for the current month. To this, the industrialists of the city agreed. Seeing that this method of remuneration was economically advantageous to the workers, their comrades in other cities quickly imitated the Shanghai experiment.

Lastly, when on 23 August 1948 the Government announced a currency reform and introduced the gold yuan, a new situation was bound to arise, though it is as yet too early to assess its social and economic effects for the workers.

Hours of Work

Among the 240 factories in Shanghai, the modal (most usual) working day was ten hours, observed in 127 factories. In the other factories, considerable variations were found: nine hours in 35 factories; eight hours in 34; eleven hours in 7; and twelve hours in 12 factories. The modal group—that working ten hours—included the more important industries: 36 were cotton spinning mills, 25 were cotton weaving mills and 9 were tobacco factories; and all the wool spinning and weaving mills belonged to the group.

Overtime was quite common, the notable exceptions being the canned food, oil pressing, thermos bottle, leather tannery and celluloid factories. Night work was also observed in 101 factories. The situation in this respect was perhaps worst in cotton spinning and weaving, where night work occurred on 26 nights in the month.

The two-shift system was found in 128 factories, mostly in the textile and tobacco factories where night work was usual. The single-shift factories, 104 in number, worked during the

day only. The three-shift system was in operation in 7 factories, comprising public utilities: water works, gas works and tramways.

The Factory Act requires the granting of a break after five hours' continuous work. The number of Shanghai factories satisfactorily complying with this provision was 144; 86 provided a break of half an hour, 7 allowed two hours; 27 factories had no break at all.

In Chungking, the modal working day was nine hours, as found in 20 out of 68 factories. The longest working day was 12 hours, in 3 factories; 13 factories worked eleven hours a day and 12 worked eight hours a day.

There was only one shift in 22 factories; two shifts were worked in 35 factories, three shifts in 5 factories and four shifts of six hours each in 4 factories. Fifty-three of the 68 factories worked overtime, ranging from 7.5 hours to 36 hours per month. Night work was observed in 47 factories. The Chungking factories provided breaks of varying length: the shortest break was that provided in one factory, which lasted 20 minutes only. In 47 factories the break lasted an hour, in 6 factories it was two hours. In 6 factories working one shift during the day, there was no break.

In Kunming, among the 42 factories investigated, the daily working hours may be summarised as follows: nine hours in 14 factories, eight hours in 13, ten hours in 3 and twelve hours in 5 factories. The impression of shortness in the working day suggested by these figures is erroneous, for in Kunming both overtime and night work were common. Overtime was worked in all but 7 factories, averaging 37 hours per month. Twenty-six factories had night work, on which both men and women were employed. However in the three-shift factories, men alone worked during the night.

The shift situation in Kunming was as follows: 16 factories had two shifts, 14 had one shift only during the day, 8 adopted the three-shift system, of approximately eight hours each. In 25 factories, a break of one hour was reported; 3 factories had a break of two hours and another 3 factories allowed only half an hour.

In Sian and Paochi, 10 factories out of 26 worked eight hours per day, 8 factories worked ten hours and 3 factories worked twelve hours. Sixteen factories had overtime; 20

factories employed workers at night (the 6 mines did not work at night). A one-hour break was provided in 20 factories. In 4 factories, there was no break during the working period.

Rest Days and Holidays

Among the 240 factories in Shanghai, 3 gave no rest days in the month, 76 gave two rest days and 131 gave four rest days. In 3 factories, there were no holidays throughout the year; from five to ten days were given in 165 factories and from eleven to fifteen days in 46 factories. The workers in 188 factories received pay during their rest days, those in 28 did not; 205 factories granted holidays with pay, 21 did not.

The four rest days in the month mostly coincided with Sundays. The days declared as national holidays by the Government number about seven in the year; in addition, there were usually from five to seven traditional festival days.

In Chungking, 53 factories worked on Sundays and only 15 factories gave their workers rest on Sundays. Two factories gave two rest days in the month, 3 gave three rest days. A number of factories allowed their workers the day off whenever there was an interruption of electricity, and in Chungking during the war such interruptions were rather frequent. Ten factories provided for eight holidays in the year, 11 provided for nine holidays and 15 for five; a few factories gave an annual holiday of ten to fifteen days.

In Kunming, 11 factories worked on Sundays, 8 gave two rest days in the month, 29 considered Sunday a day of rest for their workers. The rest days were usually given without pay, but employees who worked on Sundays were paid higher rates, for this work was commonly regarded as overtime.

In Sian and Paochi, 8 factories (and mines) gave their workers rest on Sundays with no pay, 17 factories (and mines) worked on Sundays, one factory worked half day on Sunday but paid its workers the full day's wage. Only one factory gave seven public holidays in the year as prescribed by the Government, in addition to seven festival days. The other factories gave from three to five public holidays and from five to seven festival days.

Welfare

Since the enforcement of the Factory Act in 1931, and especially since the establishment of the Ministry of Social Affairs in 1940, noticeable progress has been made in some forms of industrial welfare. During the war, welfare work in the south-west and north-west was undertaken on a much larger scale than had previously been attempted in similar industries anywhere in China.

However, certain intelligent and experienced industrialists are rather sceptical about the real benefit of workers' welfare. Their views have been expressed in the following terms :

> We are all agreed that welfare work is of social benefit to the workers. But we are doubtful about its economic consequences. For every type of welfare work introduced, the management has to foot the bill or the greater part thereof. But is this additional cost ultimately shifted to the consumer by an increase in the market price of the commodities manufactured ? Or is an increase in welfare accompanied by a corresponding increase in the workers' efficiency to offset the additional cost to the management ?

Particulars as to the provision for workers' welfare made in the cities covered by the survey are given below under the heads of food, housing, medical care, co-operation and education.

Food.

In Shanghai, 135 factories provided full or partial board for their workers free of charge, and 22 at the workers' expense. In 74 factories, the workers managed the food question themselves. In 18 factories there were separate dining rooms for the skilled and the unskilled workers ; 24 made no such distinctions.

All the 68 factories in Chungking provided dining rooms for their workers. At the larger factories, the workers were grouped at mealtimes according to sex and skill. In 7 of the factories the workers paid for their food, but the factory sold them rice at reduced prices or gave them a food subsidy. All the other factories provided the food free of charge.

In Kunming, food was usually provided by the management in dining rooms differentiating between skilled and unskilled workers. In a few cases the skilled workers who came with

their families from Shanghai took their food in their own houses, which were supplied by the management.

In Sian and Paochi, 16 factories provided food for the workers, and in 6 factories the workers were able to obtain their own food. Skilled and unskilled workers usually took their meals separately, the latter eating coarser and cheaper foods.

With regard to the nutritional value of the diet, little information is now available. In connection with the investigation made in Chungking in 1945, the daily records of the food consumed by 348 arsenal workers over the whole year were analysed. The food, which was provided by the arsenal free of charge, was considered better than that given in many factories in and near Chungking, and yet several deficiencies in nutrition were noted. The essential findings were as follows :

> The daily intake yields about 3,200 calories, comprising 95 grams of protein and 1 gram of calcium. This diet was said to be sufficient for the health and efficiency of an active worker of a body weight of 70 kilograms. The thiamin intake would have been adequate if brown rice instead of white rice were used. The intake of vitamin A would have been adequate if fresh leafy vegetables were freely used. The adequacy of vitamin D was uncertain. The intake of riboflavin was about one third of the value as compared with the American standard recommended by the National Research Council in 1943.[1]

In this study, 72 items (including rice, vegetables, meat, and cooking requirements) were identified.

Housing.

In regard to working-class housing, the situation in Shanghai was briefly as follows : in 128 factories, housing accommodation was entirely supplied by the management ; in 32 cases it was partially so supplied ; and in 67 factories the workers looked for lodging themselves.

In Chungking, 47 factories accommodated all their workers in dormitories and 21 accommodated some of them. Sixty-five factories charged their workers no lodging fees ; 3 charged a nominal fee. A distinction was usually drawn between the married and the unmarried : the former lived in small houses near the factory and the latter in the dormitories. Fifty-three factories made no distinction between the skilled and the

[1] TA CHEN : " The Foundations of a Sound Social Policy for China ", in *Social Forces* (University of North Carolina, December 1947), p. 142.

unskilled workers, while 15 factories gave certain special privileges to the skilled workmen.

In Kunming, 25 factories, mainly Government enterprises, provided for workers' lodging free of charge. In these dormitories, supervision was usually strict and the workers' freedom much restricted.

In Sian and Paochi, 15 factories housed all their workers in dormitories. Of the 8 factories (and mines) which housed part of their working force in dormitories and part outside, 5 provided for free rooms and the remainder gave partial housing subsidies. Single and married workers lived apart, and skilled and unskilled workers also had separate lodging accommodation, the standard of which was rather lower for the unskilled.

Medical Care.

In Shanghai, 26 factories gave all the necessary medical attention to their workers, subject to the limitation set by the resources available at the factory, which frequently were sufficient only for minor treatment. Eighty-two factories provided partial medical care, and in 97 factories the workers looked after medical needs themselves. Injections against infectious diseases were given free of charge by the great majority of the factories, and the extent to which the workers and their families availed themselves of this service was most satisfactory.

The best factories in Chungking had adequate hospitals with medical staffs ; the next best group made arrangements with doctors to take care of their workers when needed. Preventive injection against cholera and typhoid was common in all the factories. Forty-six of them required all their workers to take injections and the workers complied ; 13 factories were successful in persuading the majority of their workers to take injections ; 3 factories reported that only a minority of the labour force took injections.

In Kunming, one factory had a special hospital, 12 had dispensaries, and in other cases the sick people either went to the neighbouring factories for treatment or else the factory asked a doctor to come two or three times a week to give medical attention to its workers. For ordinary treatment, medical attention was usually given free of charge ; but for

serious sickness, the workers were often required to pay part of the medical expenses. Injections were given free, but only about half the workers and their families availed themselves of this service.

In Sian and Paochi, 15 factories (and mines) either had hospital facilities or arranged with doctors to look after their workers ; 26 factories (and mines) provided for injections for their working force, but a considerable number objected to injections on various grounds.

The Co-operative Store.

Consumers' co-operation organised in accordance with the Rochdale principles was gradually spreading in industrial centres before the war. But since the war, the movement appears to be losing ground ; at least this seems to be true of the factories under study. In Shanghai, no consumers' co-operative store of importance came to the attention of the investigators.

In Chungking during the war, the commoner type of co-operation, as found in many factories, was in fact no more than a method of rationing, to supplement the allowances which a large number of factories maintained. The workers purchased commodities at these stores at reduced rates, and the quantity and variety of goods which they were entitled to buy was fixed on the basis of the size of the family and its needs. Such stores paid no dividends.

A limited number of consumers' co-operative stores were in operation in Chungking. These adopted the Rochdale practices and paid dividends to their members on the basis of purchases made from the stores. In addition, there were some co-operative stores which declared dividends to members on the basis of the shares which they owned. These stores were run like ordinary business firms, except that they served a definite membership, which was composed of the workers of a factory or a group of factories and their families.

In Kunming, 9 factories had what they styled a co-operative store, whose members comprised the salaried and wage earning employees. Most of the capital was furnished by the management, and shares were freely bought by the staff. Dividend was declared on the basis of the shares which the members held.

In Sian and Paochi, 13 factories had a co-operative store whose shares were purchased by members of the staff. At the end of the year, the profits were divided among the shareholders according to the number of the shares each member owned. In two factories membership was compulsory, but in the rest the workers decided for themselves whether they wished to become members.

Education.

In Shanghai, 23 factories had opened elementary schools for the workers' children. There were 59 classes with 3,302 pupils. In addition there were 50 reading rooms with magazines and newspapers. One large factory maintained a circulating library for the benefit of its salaried and wage earning staff.

During the war, 34 factories in Chungking made provision for workers' education, in the form of evening classes, classes in elementary Chinese and technical instruction. The technical schools, usually of middle school standing, were chiefly for the benefit of skilled workers. Men and women who had had no educational opportunities during their childhood could obtain an elementary education in the evening classes. This was also available to the apprentices.

Twenty-two factories provided education for the workers' children. The lessons were ordinarily given in the evenings, but in a small number of factories day schools were also established. The curriculum of these schools corresponded in the main with that of the Ministry of Education. The books and stationery used by the pupils were supplied by the management free of charge. The meals provided for the pupils in the schools were partly paid for by their parents.

In Kunming, 11 factories maintained workers' schools, which were attended by 1,637 workers, constituting about 21.5 per cent. of the total labour force of these factories. In these schools, elementary knowledge of citizenship was taught, but their equipment made little provision for technical or vocational education.

In Sian and Paochi, 14 factories (and mines) had schools for the workers' children, with an attendance of 2,832 pupils. These schools taught elementary Chinese, history, geography and other subjects essential for the training of citizens.

The Trade Union Act

Freedom of Association

The right to organise trade unions was clearly recognised in the original Act of 1929 and is reaffirmed in the latest revision of June 1947. Any qualified worker is free to join a union or to retire from it. In fact, the third amendment to the Act of July 1933 stipulated in section 20 that " no union can compel any worker to join it or to retire from it ". During the war, however, the freedom of the workers was very much restricted. With the object of increasing the country's power to carry on the war of resistance, the Government sought to control the trade unions through an Order of 21 August 1941, under which " all workers who are qualified to be members are required to join the union and are not allowed, without the permission of the Government, to withdraw from it ". This compulsory membership was first applied in the craft unions in the transport and educational supplies industries, and later extended to industrial unions, such as those for the engineering and iron and steel industries. The appropriate authorities under whose jurisdiction the unions were controlled began to train personnel to serve either as secretaries or as inspectors of trade unions. Frequently, in the course of their enquiry among the unions or workers in and near Chungking, the writer and his associates came into contact with persons who had been sent by the local branch of the Party or by the city bureau of social affairs. The more observant workers condemned this practice in unequivocal terms as being " high-handed, autocratic and undemocratic ".

It is to be regretted that this restriction of the workers' freedom is still retained in the Amendment Act of 1947. It is in fact disconcerting to note that, long after the conclusion of the war, the Party and the Government should consider it necessary to retain the compulsory membership feature in trade union law.

In one sense, however, the workers' right of association has apparently been extended in recent years, in that the 1947 Act permits workers to organise both federations of trade unions and a general national federation. The federation of

trade unions, even on the basis of a city or a *hsien* (district), had been prohibited since the strike and boycott in Canton and Hong Kong in 1925-1926.[1] Even as recently as in 1943, the amendment to the Act adopted in that year allowed the workers to organise only national federations, but not a national general labour union.

Trade Union Structure

The original Act of 1929 stated that workers in the same trade might organise themselves into a craft union, and that workers in the same industry might organise themselves into an industrial union. In section 7 of the revised Act of June 1947, the same categories of unions are recognised, though different requirements are specified regarding the minimum number of members per union and the age limits for membership. Inasmuch as China today is but on the threshold of industrialisation, the provision for the organisation of industrial unions may be said to anticipate the socio-economic development of the country perhaps by several decades.

The Activities of Trade Unions

The functions of the union as enumerated in the Act comprise a very wide range of activities. Some of the thirteen specific items listed relate to economic and social activities of great importance, such as the conduct of workers' family budget surveys, the establishment of employment offices, the promotion of workers' education, and the submission of data to the Government as a basis for the enactment of labour laws. The inability of most of the unions to discharge their duties properly demonstrates the ineffectiveness of this agency in promoting the general wellbeing of the working classes.

The principal causes of the unions' failure lie in the fact that trade unionism, in theory and in practice, is a foreign concept, which few labour leaders and workers in China understand and appreciate. The activities in which many unions in China engage are but a superficial imitation of their

[1] For an account of the disputes, see " The Labour Movement in China ", *loc. cit.*, pp. 355-360.

western counterpart. About the true nature and function of the leading unions in Europe or America, little is known and comprehended by the Chinese comrades.

Relations between the Unions and the Government

According to the national Constitution adopted in December 1946, which came into force in March 1948, there must be workers' representatives both in the National Assembly and in the Legislative Yuan, to the extent of 30 per cent. of the membership of the former body and 20 per cent. of the latter. In the various provinces and municipalities, the "people's political councils" must also have representatives from occupational groups, including labour. In August 1947, the principal cities and also most of the provinces already had more than 1,500 labour representatives out of a total of about 38,000 representatives from all sections of the population.

These provisions reflect the role which the Kuomintang plans that the workers should play in promoting democracy in China. The question is whether they will be able to live up to the expectations of the Party, which throughout these years has warmly supported them.

There is yet another way in which the unions are linked up with the Party and the Government. In the Trade Union (Amendment) Act of 1947, with its total of sixty-three sections, there are no less than twenty provisions which require the unions to obtain authorisation from the Government before they can take certain specified steps. This governmental control ranges from the petition that must be made to the proper authorities for organising a union to the dissolution of the union as a result of the contravention of certain Government regulations.

The Attitudes of Management and Labour

The foregoing brief analysis of the fundamental labour laws of China gives a general idea of the official position which the Government assumes in dealing with industrial and labour questions. How that policy works out in practice will perhaps appear from the reactions of managements and workers to the enforcement of these laws and other allied subjects.

During their study in recent years of the conditions of life and labour of factory workers in Chinese cities, the writer and his associates, as already mentioned, interviewed a large number of persons of all categories and thus gained an insight into their attitudes towards the people they came into contact with, as well as towards the various industry and labour problems which they encountered. In quite an intimate manner, the personal statements so obtained also threw much light on the effectiveness, or the lack of it, of the Government's labour policy.

The Views of Employers

The State and Industry.

As contrasted with pre-war days, the war period witnessed a phenomenal increase of Government interference in industry. Often, this evoked vigorous protests from a number of industrialists. Said the experienced manager of a well-known cotton mill of Chungking:

> Many of us hope that the Government will take the *laissez-faire* attitude towards industry, as it used to do in the old days, when the guilds practically regulated all the trades in the country. If we sincerely tried to comply with the laws of the Government, we would have to increase our managerial staff substantially. Even for no more than the periodical submission of reports to the Government, as required under some laws, we would have to engage more clerks, which in these days of high production costs we can ill afford.
>
> What the entrepreneurs chiefly object to is the spirit of the law, which encourages restriction and repression. Instead, if the Government were to give more freedom, industry could flourish. But more regulations will eventually stifle individual initiative and jeopardise industry and commerce.
>
> Besides, none of the labour laws is uniformly enforced throughout China. This creates unfair competition. We know that in the less industrialised areas it is easier to evade the laws. But for big cities like Shanghai, Wusih and Chungking, full compliance with the laws would put the factories in a disadvantageous position, as their costs of production would be higher as compared with those of the less industrialised regions.

The Aptitude of the Chinese for Factory Work.

In our conversations with managers and the heads of personnel sections, we invariably asked them questions as to the suitability of the Chinese labourer for factory work. The Government, in its efforts to regulate modern industry, tends

to assume that the Chinese worker is an exact counterpart of the worker in the Occident, and to expect that labour legislation in China will produce identical results. Is this a valid assumption ? An engineer of considerable industrial experience in Yunnan and Szechuan states :

> We may have to re-evaluate the Chinese workman after our long experience with him in Kunming and Chungking. In the first place, the Yunnanese worker is small and light, and usually has a weak constitution. He cannot handle heavy machines and has no endurance. He is easygoing, happy and playful and he lacks the steadfastness which is essential for many types of industrial work. Of course, in Kunming the climate is unusually mild and not much subject to variations ; the temperature ranges from about 8° C. in January to 18° C. in August. This monotonous climate makes one lethargic and slow-moving.
>
> Another factor we must study is the social background of the Yunnanese workman. He is an agricultural worker originally. On the farms, he needs no technical skill and does not have to speed up his work, as he is sometimes compelled to do in a factory when working at a machine.

Regarding the modern worker's skill, the same engineer made the following observation :

> Some workmen were formerly connected with the local handicrafts and they are skilled workers in a sense. In the guilds, the masters and journeymen are ordinarily dextrous with their hands. In the factories, however, the worker must be concise in perception, quick in judgment, and correct, careful and precise in handling machines. In industrial work, the worker's skill is often associated with machinery. This expertness must be learned, and learning usually takes time.

He continued by relating his experiences with workers in and near Chungking. With slight modifications, the above characterisation of the Yunnanese worker still holds good.

> As for my experience in Shanghai before the war, I was also in charge of labour gangs, and our workmen came from the villages of the Shanghai hinterland. The Shanghainese worker, though —like the Yunnanese—not of strong physique, is more intelligent, learns more quickly and is a hard worker. In our factories we often assigned them jobs that required technical knowledge and experience, and they usually turned out to be satisfactory workmen.

Industrial Relations.

In the judgment of an experienced administrator of labour of an iron and steel works in Shanghai, the chief questions affecting the relations between management and men could be summed up in the following terms :

At the risk of some oversimplification, the problems of capital-labour relations may be categorically divided into three groups: (1) economic problems, including those relating to the workers' earnings; (2) social problems, including the workers' demand for social status; and (3) psychological problems, including the workers' unconciliatory attitude towards the management. Of these groups, I would consider the last as being the most significant during the war and after it.

With regard to the effect of the war, he continued:

The war has certainly aroused a more active sentiment among the workers towards all classes of people, especially towards those who give them jobs. They generally tend to be emotional and shiftless and to feel dejected at times. We should go a long way towards improving the relations between the management and the men if we could be patient and sympathetic towards the workers, who are, after all, co-partners with us in industrial production.

Members of the managerial staff of large factories who had direct contact with the workers frequently expressed definite opinions about them. Furthermore, those who had had industrial experience throughout these years could often compare the workers' behaviour before, during and after the war. The manager of a wool spinning and weaving factory in Shanghai and Chungking analysed his experience with his workers as follows:

Before the war, my largest factory was operated in Shanghai. For many years, half of our labour troubles arose from the workers' demand for increased wages or for a bonus at the end of the year. So long as their income was sufficient to maintain them and their families, they were satisfied and worked steadily. But during the war, their attitude changed perceptibly, as shown by the labour disputes in our plants near Chungking. There they frequently demanded a voice in discussing questions relating to their position in the factory and also relating to the conduct of our business. Occasionally they expressed the wish to participate in the activities of the factory by electing workers' delegates to talk over matters of mutual interest with the representatives of the management.

Shortly after Japan's surrender in September 1945, the largest machine shop in Kunming experienced a strike during which the workers put forward twelve demands, including the dismissal of the labour manager and the election of a workers' representative to discuss matters with the management and be considered as a member of its executive committee. When the workers won the strike, they declared:

Three thousand of us paraded the premises of the factory to celebrate our victory! We freely used placards and little flags to

display our slogans. One of them was : " The capitalist's unconditional surrender." Another read : " You want our sweat and blood ; we offer a united front in resistance."

The Evolution of Chinese Industry and the Administration of Labour.

Among the more intelligent and experienced industrialists, there is widespread awareness that significant changes have occurred and are occurring in Chinese industry and labour. Said the manager of a well-known engineering firm of Shanghai :

The earliest factories in China were managed by officials, who knew little about modern industry and were mainly interested in money making. Pretty soon, they were outwitted by business men in the search for profits. During the war, noteworthy progress was made in that many factories were in the hands of engineers and technicians, who have done better than either the officials or the business men as heads of industries.

Do not think that all our industrial experience in Chungking and Kunming during the war was of a transitory character. Some part of it really has permanent value in developing the industries of the future. Two experiments are particularly worth noting.

The idea of industrial zoning was well worked out in Lee Chia Tu near Chungking, where a group of nine factories clustered within a radius of less than a mile, so that all the advantages of economy and efficiency in production were obtained. Besides, the question of the workers' welfare, on which the Government lays so much stress, also had a working basis there, because together the factories discussed and planned a comprehensive programme, and together they could bear the expenses involved.

The second idea is that of co-operation between industry and the Government. The manager was not called upon to deal with the problems of the factory only, but also with those of the community, such as lighting, water supply, communications and public safety. For more intelligent study of these problems, the local government was asked to be moved nearer the factory zone so as to bring about closer co-operation. In the future, when the Government intends to promulgate industrial legislation, it must first know industry's needs and problems more intimately.

Closely connected with the evolution of Chinese industry is the administration of labour. According to the same authority, several types can be distinguished :

In the old-fashioned factory, the manager directly controls labour. From the point of view of labour administration, this is generally unsatisfactory, for the manager usually has many other duties and is thus not able to devote sufficient time to the care of the workers.

In some factories, the engineer directs the workmen. This is more natural, as he must employ workers to operate the machines. Though a number of the engineers are broadminded and humanita-

rian, they are by training and experience experts in handling machinery but are frequently awkward in dealing with human beings.

In many factories the control of labour is in the hands of the traditional foreman. The defects of this practice lie in the fact that the foreman is usually ignorant, conservative and shows favouritism to his friends and relatives. He will not be able to introduce scientific improvements and will not be fair to all the workers under his control.

For the proper treatment of the factory worker, specialist services are indispensable. It is true that in a number of modern factories, there is usually a special section, known as the personnel section, to deal with the engagement, transfer, promotion and discharge of the workers. However, frequently this section is not in the hands of competent men. Too often, its work consists in mere record keeping, dealing with the workers' attendances and absences, and is reduced to statistics and routine. As regards the all-important questions of vocational training, of the workers' psychological testing and study, and of sympathetic understanding and appreciation—rarely has any worthwhile attempt been made in any industry of real social and economic consequence.

The Workers' Outlook

A large number of our interviews with workers and labour leaders in several cities have revealed their psychological reactions to the policies of the Government, to their relations with the members of the management, and to their evaluation of the trade unions. The following analysis is limited to Shanghai, and sets forth briefly the results of 201 interviews.

The Workers' View of the Management.

In 38 cases the workers displayed a friendly attitude towards the employer, whether as the result of an old friendship with him, or because they were related to him, or because they had been in his employment for a long time. The attitude of 11 workers was indifferent towards the employer; they alleged that the relationship between them hardly went further than that expressed by " we give him labour and he gives us money ". The remaining members of the group of 201 workers expressed ill-feeling towards the employer, though the intensity of that feeling differed with the individual: " The capitalist has no feelings. He is not sympathetic towards us. There is a wall between him and us." Or : " The employer and other members of the management are generally apathetic towards the workmen. They consider us lowdown and keep us at a distance from them."

The following statement illustrates the attitude towards the overseer or foreman :

> The foreman is not considerate. He is often obsequious to the employer and shows no fellow-feeling for us. He shows favouritism to his friends and relatives, but does not treat us justly on the basis of meritorious work.

In this connection it may be of interest to mention the writer's experience when visiting a large cotton mill on the outskirts of Chungking. This factory was well equipped with the Saco-Lowell machines, a reading room, a playground and a nursery, but the writer noticed that the workers were loitering. In talks with several girls, the following revealing statements were made :

> Our overseer is an old-fashioned official and a highbrow who had no previous experience of factory work. Some of us have been here for three months and have never had a chance of meeting him. Two days ago, four of us complained to him of the poor food we received from our dining room, and he paid no attention to us. He always keeps himself aloof from us. He does not know how we think and feel, nor do we know what his feelings are. We have no incentive to work.

Relations between Industry and Labour.

A total of 98 workers, who were intelligent, articulate and had had long experience of industrial work, demanded social equality with the management. To them, the relations between management and men could be considerably improved by proper recourse to the following methods :

(a) Through the initiative of the management. In the eyes of this group of 24 workers, the chief responsibility for improving capital-labour relations must rest primarily with the management, which should, in particular, be considerate with the workers, submit the financial accounts to public inspection when need arises, and extend its welfare measures for the benefit of the workers.

(b) Through the efforts of the workers. A considerable number—27 workers—were of the opinion that the workers themselves could bring about an improvement in the capital-labour situation by having larger and more powerful organisations of their own, by promoting workers' education, and by opening and maintaining factories themselves.

(c) Through co-operation between capital and labour. A group of 24 workers of maturer judgment advocated cordial co-operation between themselves and the management. They insisted that " each side must, on the basis of conscience, be conciliatory towards the other party, if enduring industrial peace is to be maintained ".

(d) Through the influence of the Government. The view of this group of 23 workers was that an enlightened Government could through its laws and regulations create and maintain social equilibrium in industry, as a basis for promoting just relations between the management and the workers.

Attitude towards Trade Unions.

Of the 71 workers who gave reasons for joining a union, 50 stated that they did so of their own free will, while the remaining 21 had been forced to become members by external pressure. In the view of this group, the functions of the union must be: *(a)* to fight on behalf of the workers and to present their demands to the management when necessary; *(b)* to improve the conditions of employment; *(c)* to work for security of employment; *(d)* to give the workers an opportunity to air grievances; *(e)* to increase their power through organisation. Some of them expressed themselves more realistically. One man said:

> The union is the only place where fellow-feeling is freely shown. Members of the union are affectionate to each other, like members of a family. We feel spiritually comforted on becoming members of the union.

Another said:

> My union sent me to a hospital when I was injured. It helped me to obtain a premium wage on one occasion, and to get a dismissal allowance on another. When it opened a children's school, my daughter had an opportunity to read *The Adventures of a Poor Girl* in its reading room.

A considerable number of the more intelligent workers, both men and women, frankly declared that the trade union movement today was quite defective, but that they had high aspirations as to the directions in which the unions should develop in the future. They considered that:

(a) the union should on the workers' behalf bargain with the management for extended welfare measures, including the provision of medical care, evening classes, bath house and playground, and for better terms of employment (36 workers);

(b) the union should increase the power of collective bargaining and work for increased security of employment (16 workers);

(c) the union should improve capital-labour relations by demanding that the management rescind all regulations restricting the workers' freedom in their dealings with the management (4 workers);

(d) the union should truly represent the workers and refrain from being the mouthpiece of the Government (5 workers);

(e) the union should not be under the direction of the Government (14 workers);

(f) union membership should be free and not compulsory (12 workers).

Among the more observant workers, there was a general consciousness of the fact that the labour movement today is weak and ineffective. The 37 persons who outlined their views on this point, 28 of whom were union officials or ex-officials, enumerated various obstacles to trade union progress, which can be summarised in the following statements:

(a) The tricks of an unsympathetic employer:

A hardboiled business man, ignorant of the workers' problems, ruthlessly oppresses the workmen. One of his tricks is to encourage them to form cliques. In 1931, two tramway conductors and two machinists were victims of this trick and withdrew from their union. Another trick is to hire rascals to beat the union members and to threaten others who might wish to join the union. A third trick is to give higher wages and better treatment to the non-union men in the factory.

(b) The lack of group spirit among the workers:

Some workers are illiterate and are often selfish. They will do things detrimental to the entire union. Girls and women never have a strong desire to become union members, as they consider their employment as being of a temporary nature.

(c) The difficult position of the union official :

Though many of us, as union officials, have done our utmost to present our case to the management, the employer frequently turns a deaf ear to our persuasions. For this we are often adversely criticised by our comrades. In a number of disputes, we thus become *personae non grata* with the management and lose the confidence of the workers.

(d) The pressure of politics :

If we show too much independence in union activities, the Government will usually be suspicious of our motives and accuse us of being communists. If we work under the absolute direction of the Government, the union may not be able to be of benefit to the workers. For instance, the Government often appoints an inspector who is seldom a worker. He frequently puts forward the viewpoint of the Government or the Party, and disregards the interests of the working man. Often he encourages the division of the workers into small groups. In our factory, we usually presented a united front before the arrival of the Government inspector. Since his entry into the union, there are groups among us who greatly weaken the strength of our organisation.

(e) The insecurity of the union official's job :

I told the workers to parade in order to demand an increase in the dismissal allowance. But I was imprisoned for this, as the police authorities stated that I had violated the public safety regulations. I lost my union job.

(f) The heterogeneity of the workers :

Workers come from various social strata and from different localities, with different social conventions and different beliefs. Obviously, when some come from the villages and others from the towns, they are bound to have different living habits and outlook on life.

When you have members of different political convictions, the difficulties of unionisation are increased manifold. For example, at a local weavers' union under my direction, certain leftist elements often turn their eyes to Moscow. On the other hand, there are also some conservative members. Between them, sharp differences of opinion frequently arise. There seems to be no social glue to paste the different patterns of group behaviour together.

(g) The incompetence of some labour leaders. Some workers see the important role that the labour leader can play in the organisation and conduct of the unions. If the union is in the hands of an incompetent leader, it can naturally make little headway in unionist activities. What an able leader can do is vividly depicted in the following case :

The workers of the silk filatures have been on strike for two weeks and they have won a basic wage of $1.60 per day. This is

chiefly due to my tactics, which are seldom resorted to by other labour leaders. Because the stoppage of work has already continued for a long time, I perceive the big differences that exist between the large and small factories in their ability to withstand the economic losses of the strike; naturally, the former do not feel the losses so keenly as the latter. I seize upon this opportunity and say to the small factories: "If you concede our demand for a basic wage of $1.60 per day, we will yield on other points." Thirteen small factories agree to this. We have the workers reinstated at once and ask them to work as hard as they can. The big factories, seeing that their competitors are rapidly turning out products for the market, quickly come to terms with us.

In the light of the above considerations, some of the workers conclude that a successful labour leader should possess at least the following qualities: (1) he should come directly from the working class and be himself a worker, so that he may know intimately the problems the workers encounter and try to improve their working lives; (2) he should live among the workers, so that he will not be an "aristocrat", a "spy" or a "traitor"; (3) he should always be sympathetic with the workers, so that he will fight for their welfare and will not be liable to be corrupted by the management, seeking selfish gains for himself and inflicting great harm on his comrades.

Conclusions

The preceding summary of certain basic data on industry and labour in contemporary China may suggest a few concluding remarks.

In the first place, the enforcement of the labour laws has produced uneven effects on the urban centres at different stages of industrial and socio-economic development. This reinforces the writer's contention that the national laws of China should be comprehensive and elastic, and confined to the enunciation of general principles only. On the basis of these principles, detailed regulations should be issued by the Ministry of Social Affairs, or by the provincial or municipal governments, as the case may be, in accordance with the actual conditions prevailing in the localities in which the regulations are to be applied.

Secondly, in order that this legislation may be more effective, its adoption must be preceded by much more thorough-

going socio-economic investigation than has hitherto been attempted. No social law should be enacted or promulgated without previous social study. Today, the ineffectiveness of most social legislation in China is due to the fact that it is largely a superficial imitation of similar legislation in the Occident and not the result of fact-finding enquiries in the country itself or designed to meet its changing economic and social situation.

Thirdly, the Government's labour policy should be framed realistically with reference to the considered opinions of the industrialists and workers whose conduct such policy is intended to regulate.

Fourthly, it seems clear that both employers and workers desire to have a reasonable degree of freedom, so that they can freely take the initiative in tackling problems concerning their welfare and their lives. In this task, they are quite ready to co-operate with the Government in giving effect to its policies.

Fifthly, industry is quite aware that a new social situation has arisen, but is still uncertain in what direction to cope with the change and what techniques to adopt.

Lastly, the recent war has given the Chinese labour movement an unprecedented impetus, and the workers have grasped this opportunity to demand social ascendancy in Chinese society. In their persistent struggles they have frequently come into conflict with the Government and also with the employing class. In time, it is hoped, they will be able to improve their social status and thus make an even more useful contribution to the effort to introduce democratic ways of life throughout the whole nation.

REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

The Czechoslovak Five-Year Plan

The new Czechoslovak Constitution which came into force on 9 June 1948 lays down that all economic activities must be directed by the State, within the framework of a single economic plan prepared in advance for a specified period.[1] *A two-year plan of economic reconstruction had already been set on foot in Czechoslovakia during the period 1947-1948. As required by the Constitution, the Government has now prepared a new plan for the period 1949-1953. The Act concerning the Five-Year Plan recently adopted by the National Assembly is preceded by an explanatory memorandum, which also contains the first statement of the operation of the earlier plan.*[2] *The essential features of this statement and of the Five-Year Plan itself are briefly analysed in the following pages.*

On 27 October 1948 the National Assembly of the Czechoslovak Republic adopted an Act on the Five-Year Plan which, in accordance with the new Czechoslovak Constitution, will govern the economic activities of the country during the period 1949-1953. The plan provides for a very considerable development and transformation of the structure of the national economy, the essential object of which is " to raise, by means of increased production, the standard of living of the working classes and thus to strengthen the links between workers, agriculturists, intellectual workers and the urban middle classes.

The Act sets targets for the volume of production to be reached by the various economic sectors and of consumption goods and social, health and cultural services to be made available to the population ; it also defines the means which will be required to

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. LVIII, No. 4, October 1948, p. 507.

[2] *Sbírka zákonů a nařízení*, No. 90, 2 November 1948 ; *Národní shromáždění Československé republiky*, (Parliamentary Paper) 1948, 1st electoral period, 1st session, No. 106.

carry out this programme. The provisions concerning the Five-Year Plan are based largely on the results of the Two-Year Plan for the period 1947-1948.

The Working of the Two-Year Plan (1947-1948)

The explanatory memorandum on the Act concerning the Five-Year Plan contains the following statement:

> Since the Five-Year Plan is logically connected with the Two-Year Plan which precedes it, and since it should be possible to profit by all the experience acquired during the application of the latter—experience all the more valuable in that it resulted from a first application in practice of the system of economic planning in Czechoslovakia—it seems absolutely indispensable to draw up now a preliminary balance-sheet of the working of the Two-Year Plan, to assess at their proper value all its results, both positive and negative, and to draw therefrom the necessary conclusions.

The essential results of the Two-Year Plan, as set forth in the text submitted by the Government, are briefly as follows.

Industry and Transport

In the case of industry the figures indicate that the working of the plan has been satisfactory and that the target of a 10 per cent. increase in production as compared with the pre-war level will have been attained during the last months of 1948. The results achieved during the period January 1947 to June 1948, expressed as percentages of the estimates of the plan, are as follows:

Industry	Percentage	Industry	Percentage
Mining	100.1	Paper	111.0
Power	98.6	Timber	107.8
Metal	107.6	Textile and clothing	96.6
Engineering	99.8	Leather, hides and rubber	111.8
Chemical	93.7		
Glass	100.8	All branches (except the food industry)	101.1
Building materials and pottery	101.6		

The explanatory memorandum lays great stress on the increase of production in key industries. In the coal industry, the production of lignite increased by 22 per cent. during the first six months of 1948 as compared with 1946, and that of coal by 30 per cent., or by 36 per cent. and 15 per cent. respectively as compared with pre-war production. The metal industry has even considerably exceeded the estimates of the plan. The production of crude iron during the eighteen months in question reached about 2,200,000 tons and that of steel 3,600,000 tons, whereas the targets fixed were 2,000,000 and 3,400,000 tons. In the first half of 1948 the production of iron was 92 per cent. higher than in the corres-

ponding period of 1946 and 2 per cent. higher than before the war; that of steel was 70 per cent. higher than in 1946 and 20 per cent. higher than before the war.

The situation in regard to transport has also developed satisfactorily. The figures reached for road transport largely exceed the estimates of the plan. The memorandum makes the following statement:

> Thus industry and transport, the two sectors which are almost entirely nationalised, have been able to carry out their respective tasks. Nationalisation, in conjunction with the fact that work in these branches of activity is largely measurable, regular and repetitive, has made it possible to establish effective control and to give wide publicity to the results achieved. These figures, however, do not show the whole truth, which it is necessary to know. The machinery of the plan is very complex and if a single part is working badly, the whole community is affected. In the circumstances, the deficiency is all the more keenly felt since the two branches in which the estimates of the Two-Year Plan have not been realised are agriculture and the building industry, that is to say, the two sectors which have the most direct influence on the standard of living of the people.

Agriculture

Table I gives the figures actually reached in 1947 in agriculture, as compared with the estimates.

TABLE I. AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION IN 1947 COMPARED WITH ESTIMATES OF THE TWO-YEAR PLAN

Product	Estimates of plan (No. of wagons)	1947 crop	
		No. of wagons	Percentage of estimate
Wheat . . .	147,000	85,360	58
Rye	128,000	98,760	77
Potatoes . .	914,000	467,766	51
Sugarbeet . .	483,000	240,700	50

For products of animal origin, the quantities delivered similarly declined seriously during the first six months of 1948. Slaughtering of cattle provided only 46,327 tons of beef, that is to say, 58 per cent. of the quantity specified in the plan. In the case of pork, the quantity obtained was only 71,338 tons, or 54 per cent. of the estimate. Lastly, the 10 million hectolitres of milk supplied during the same period represent only 62 per cent. of the estimated figure. In these circumstances the programme for the food industry was only carried out to the extent of 71.5 per cent. in 1947 and 82.8 per cent. during the first six months of 1948.

Building Industry

In the building industry, construction expenses amounted to about 15,000 million crowns, that is to say, 70 per cent. of the financial estimates of the plan. The production figures show even lower percentages; thus, the number of new dwellings constructed was 29,000, or only 40 per cent. of the figure set.

The Government ascribes this unsatisfactory situation in part to certain material factors, such as the drought of 1947, which meant a loss to agriculture of 38 per cent. of the average harvest estimated, and the backward character of small private undertakings in agriculture and the building industry. The nationalisation of the greater part of the building industry is expected, however, to lead to a considerable improvement. The decline is also ascribed to a tendency to sabotage and a desire for gain among most private individuals engaging in agriculture or building. The value of buildings erected " clandestinely " without reference to the plan is estimated at 3,000 million crowns. Furthermore, large quantities of foodstuffs have been smuggled away from the official market. This situation has also affected the country's foreign trade, since large quantities of imports have been needed to make up for the shortage of foodstuffs, and therefore more industrial products have had to be exported, thus reducing the amount available for the home market.

Manpower and Labour Output

As a result of the policy of redistribution of labour under the Act of 9 May 1947 concerning the national mobilisation of manpower [1], the number of persons employed increased in accordance with the estimates of the plan in the various branches of activity, with the exception of the mining industry, where the system of brigades of volunteer workers has had to be retained. On the other hand, there was a marked delay in respect of the increase of labour output, a delay which is attributed " on the one hand, to the slowing down of the process of technical rationalisation of production and, on the other, to very high absenteeism, excessive labour turnover and other similar factors due to bad labour discipline ".[2]

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[1] For an account of the Act, see *International Labour Review*, Vol. LVI, No. 3, September 1947, pp. 321-324.

[2] The issue of the trade union weekly *U.R.O.* for 4 November 1948 (No. 45) contains the following table, based on the data published by the State Statistical Office concerning production per head in the various industries in September 1948:

Index of production per head (1937 = 100)

Industry	*Index*	*Industry*	*Index*
Building materials	169.5	Glass	92.6
Power	132.7	Metal	92.4
Chemical	108.5	Paper	89.6
Hides and rubber	106.7	Timber	80.8
Printing	105.8	Mining	77.6
Textile	103.2		

The Government sums up the experience gained from the operation of the Two-Year Plan as follows :

(1) In the main branches of activity the results of the Two-Year Plan may be regarded as satisfactory ; the reason why the standard of living of the people has not improved as quickly as was hoped lies in the unsatisfactory results in two sectors, agriculture and the building industry, which are managed by capitalists and small contractors.

(2) Only through the satisfactory execution of the tasks fixed for industry and transport could the unfortunate effects of the deficiency in agriculture and the building industry be alleviated.

(3) The preliminary results of the Two-Year Plan have shown that the standard of living cannot rise as planned unless the tasks fixed are fully carried out in all branches of the national economy.

(4) Experience shows that the material welfare of the people can reach a higher level only as a result of a continuous policy of economic planning and the gradual elimination of capitalist elements.

The Five-Year Plan

General Objectives

The Five-Year Plan provides generally for " a development of the nationalised industries and an intensification of the mechanisation and electrification of agriculture as the necessary basis for the introduction of more advanced farming methods. Such capitalist elements as still remain will be gradually diminished." The Act continues :

> The objectives of the plan must be reached by continuous expansion of the forces of production, which should make it possible to increase the national revenue by 50 per cent. The continuous progress of this development of the national economy and its power to resist the effects of economic crises will be secured through an adequate transformation of the economic structure of the country and through closer collaboration with States which have a planned economy.

The principal targets to be attained by 1953, according to the estimates of the Five-Year Plan, are shown in table II below.

The investments for the five-year period must reach 336,200 million crowns, 28,600 million crowns of which will be devoted to investments of a social character (social assistance, public health, education and culture).

TABLE II. GENERAL ESTIMATES OF THE FIVE-YEAR PLAN

Item	1948	1953	Index for 1953 (1948 = 100)
	1,000 million crowns		
National income	210	310	148
Production :			
Industry	288	454	157
Investment goods	...	...	166
Consumption goods	...	...	150
Agriculture and forestry	94	108	115
Building industry	20 [1]	46	230
Manpower :	*Thousands*		
Industry	1,362	1,616	118
Agriculture and forestry	2,207	2,113	96
Permanent workers in agriculture	210	245	117
Transport	323	343	106
Building industry	210	315	150
Labour output per head :	*1,000 crowns*		
Industry	211	280	132
Agriculture and forestry	43	51	120
Building industry	95	146	153
Transport	...	...	130
Consumption per head	...	...	135

[1] The plan for 1948 provided for a figure of 29,200 million crowns ; 20,000 million crowns is an approximate estimate of the actual results.

Economic Objectives

Industry.

The volume of industrial production should increase during the five-year period by 57 per cent. and exceed by about 60 per cent. the production of the best pre-war years (1929 and 1937). The production per head will be increased by about 80 per cent. The rate of increase will not, however, be the same in all the various branches of industry.

"The structure of Czechoslovak economy dates back to the Austrian Empire and was adjusted to the needs of that period. It must be modified and adapted to the economic and political conditions of the present situation. Production will therefore have to be directed rather towards industries which can compete successfully on the international market, such as the metalworking industry—particularly, the manufacture of heavy machinery —and the chemical industry ; and on the other hand, the development of those industries must be slowed down which, before the war, were only able to hold their place on world markets by paying inadequate wages, such as the manufacture of gloves and toys, and to a certain extent the glass and textile industries.

"Nevertheless, the development of the metal industry would appear to be indispensable, not only because of the structural transformations which have taken place in foreign trade, but also because this industry must assist in the development of our own productive capacity, in the modernisation of our industries, and the re-establishment of the military power of the country." [1]

For the purpose of this structural transformation, investments will be concentrated mainly in key industries. This policy does not, however, assume a diminution of production in other branches, in particular, the consumption goods industries ; on the contrary, the plan provides, for instance, for increases of production of 60 per cent. in the textile and clothing industry and 70 per cent. in the food industry. However, these increases may be achieved by recourse to the reserve capacity of production which has not yet been fully used in these branches.[2]

According to the estimates of the plan, the gross value of engineering production will be raised from 47,800 million crowns in 1948 to 92,300 million crowns in 1953 ; the production of heavy machinery will be almost trebled. The production of the chemical industry in 1953 will reach a value of 35,100 million crowns as against 21,700 million in 1948, and that of the metal industry 46,400 million crowns as against 31,200 million in 1948.[3]

The estimated progress of production in the various branches of industry is shown in table III below.

Handicrafts.

The Five-Year Plan also provides for the expansion of handicraft production, which " in the present economic structure represents a supplementary factor of great importance in respect of industrial production in general, and particularly in certain occupations such as those of blacksmiths, harnessmakers and other crafts connected with agriculture, carpenters, joiners, glassworkers, tinsmiths and other building trades, tailors, shoemakers and other small producers of consumption goods. The important part played by handicrafts

[1] Declaration by Mr. Klement Gottwald, President of the Republic, on the occasion of the inauguration of the preparatory work for the plan (10 October 1948), quoted in the explanatory memorandum.

[2] Explanatory memorandum on the Act concerning the Five-Year Plan.

[3] To eliminate in advance the effects of any depreciation of the currency, the estimates of the plan are based on the prices in force at 1 January 1948, treated as the "fixed planning prices".

TABLE III. ESTIMATED PRODUCTION IN 1953

Industry	Gross value (million crowns)	Index (1948=100)
Mining	17,769	135
Power	14,072	152
Metal	46,375	149
Engineering	92,270	193
Chemical	35,083	162
Glass	4,590	112
Building materials and pottery	12,115	159
Paper	9,880	141
Wood	12,520	126
Textile and clothing	77,430	168
Hides and rubber	21,793	143
Printing, gramophone and cinematograph	5,241	136
Sugar refining	10,240	117
Distilleries	5,626	106
Breweries and malt works	9,596	168
Flourmills	4,730	130
Food	61,811	179
Tobacco and salt monopolies	12,853	94

in the maintenance and repair of means of production and consumption goods has not been forgotten in the plan." [1]

The gross value of this production will increase by 20 per cent., and in 1953 will reach a total of 59,000 million crowns, as against 49,000 million crowns in 1948. The total will be made up as follows (in million crowns): metal goods, 12,900; chemicals, 1,300; glassware, 400; building materials and pottery, 1,400; paper goods, 900; wooden goods, 4,800; textiles and readymade goods, 10,600; leather and rubber goods, 3,700; flour, 3,800; foodstuffs, 16,100; services, 3,100.

Special attention will be paid to the development of craft cooperatives.

[1] Explanatory memorandum.

Agriculture.

The plan provides for the introduction in agriculture of more economic methods of working and more intensive farming, particularly in animal husbandry. Thus, according to the estimates of the plan, " not only must the food supply of the population in general be brought up to a satisfactory level, but cost of production must be reduced, and the gap between labour output in industry and in agriculture must diminish in order to eliminate the difference in standard of living between town and country. Facilities for the employment of women will be created in the country and bases for the cultural life of the villages will be established."

During the period of the Five-Year Plan, agricultural production will be increased by 37 per cent. as compared with the figure for 1948. There will also be a substantial shifting in agricultural activity, from crop raising, in which the production will increase by 11 per cent. only and will not exceed the pre-war level, to stock raising, in which the production will increase by 86 per cent. and thus largely exceed the pre-war level. The various crops will represent in 1953 only 52 per cent. of the total agricultural production of the country, as against 65 per cent. in 1948, whereas the share of animal products will increase from 35 per cent. to 48 per cent. It is the increased production of fodder in particular which will make it possible to increase the livestock of the country, even though this may necessitate the import of cereals. Furthermore, the plan provides for an increased yield per unit of land, as a result of mechanisation, the selection of better seeds and plants, the improved use of manure, etc.

Very great importance is attached to the establishment of agricultural machinery stations belonging to the State or to co-operative societies. In 1946, 11,800 tractors were used in agriculture, that is to say one tractor per 602 hectares of agricultural land or per 470 hectares of arable land. At the end of 1948 their number will be raised to 22,000, and at the end of the Five-Year Plan period to 45,000, equivalent to one tractor per 172 hectares of agricultural land or 125 hectares of arable land.

Table IV gives the estimates of the plan for the principal agricultural machines.

TABLE IV. NUMBER OF AGRICULTURAL MACHINES
(thousands)

Machines	No. at 31 December 1948	Increase during 5-year period	No. eliminated	No. at 31 December 1953
Tractors	22	30	7	45
Tractor-ploughs . .	20	33	5	48
Reapers	110	60	30	140
Reaper-binders . . .	25	30	5	50
Milking machines . .	9	20	3	26

This programme will make it possible to complete the mechanisation of agriculture in practice. Care will be taken to distribute the machines for preference to State machinery stations, co-operative societies and State farms or farms which are the property of the people, in order to ensure the most rational use over large areas.

The figures for agricultural production in 1953 as compared with that in 1948 are given in table V.

TABLE V. GROWTH OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION

Products	Area sown (1,000 hectares)			Crop				
				Quintals per hectare		1,000 tons		
	1948	1953	Percentage increase or decrease	1948	1953	1948	1953	Percentage increase or decrease in total crop
Wheat	816.6	795	— 3	17.6	19.6	1,440.8	1,558	+ 8
Rye	698.0	560	— 20	16.8	17.8	1,172.7	1,000	— 15
Barley	616.3	685	+ 11	17.6	18.5	1,084.8	1,266	+ 17
Oats	587.9	615	+ 5	17.3	18.5	1,017.7	1,137	+ 12
Maize	123.1	125	+ 2	22.5	24.0	277.6	300	+ 8
Pulses	45.6	52	+ 14	12.2	12.5	55.3	65	+ 18
Potatoes	604.0	640	+ 6	124.4	152.4	8,001.8	9,755	+ 22
Sugarbeet	186.1	190	+ 2	253.6	291.6	4,719.2	5,540	+ 17
Oilseed	80.0	77	— 4	6.0	8.9	48.0	68.6	+ 43
Grass, etc., seed	66.1	68	+ 3	12.3	17.5	81.0	119	+ 47
Fodder	3,300.0	3,514	+ 6	—	—	5,954.0	12,803	+115
Hops	8.9	9	+ 1	15.0	17.0	6.7	7.6	+ 13

Building Industry.

The volume of work to be carried out by the building industry in 1953 must represent a value of 46,000 million crowns, an increase of 130 per cent. compared with the 1948 figure. The total value of the work to be done during the five-year period is 176,900 million crowns, 135,000 million crowns of which will be devoted to new buildings, distributed as follows (in million crowns): industry and handicrafts, 44,600; agriculture, 11,800; building industry, 700; transport, 23,100; commerce and hotel industry, 1,900; new dwellings, 39,300; health, social and cultural establishments, 14,400; public works, 41,100.

The nationalised sector must extend to 80 per cent. of the total capacity of the building industry and thus take the greater part of the responsibility for the execution of the plan. Small-scale

craft work will be gradually eliminated by the adoption of industrial mass-production methods and in particular by intensifying the production of prefabricated parts.

Transport and Communications.

The plan provides for a considerable development of all means of transport. Thus goods transport will increase by 39 per cent., to reach a total in 1953 of 17,000 million ton-kilometres for the railways and 441 million ton-kilometres for road transport. The increase in inland navigation is to be 70 per cent., and in air transport 120 per cent. The number of passengers will increase to 1,075 million in urban public transport, or by 19 per cent., and to 307 million in interurban transport, or by 36 per cent. The total increase for the railways will be 27 per cent. Lastly, 6,155 communes will benefit by the extension of the telephone system and the number of subscribers will increase by 61 per cent.

Social Objectives

The improvement of the material and cultural standard of living of the people should be regarded as the essential part of the Five-Year Plan, since, as already indicated, the object of the planning and development of industrial and agricultural production is to improve the cultural standard and increase the material welfare of the population. For this purpose, consumption, prices, wages and income in general should be regulated in such a way that the standard of living of each citizen rises in proportion to his output and his merits.

The plan distinguishes between "social consumption" and "private consumption", both of which directly reflect improvements in living conditions. Taken as a whole, consumption per head should increase on an average by 35 per cent., provided that the targets set for production are attained.

Development of Social Consumption.

So far as social services are concerned, the plan provides, among other things, for the equipment of crèches and children's homes capable of receiving an additional 15,400 and 6,375 children, respectively. The school canteens will serve meals to 180,000 additional children, and the capacity of youth hostels will be increased by 50,000. The recreation centres are to be able to cater for 200,000 more children, 158,000 more young persons and 300,000 more adults than at present. Likewise, the number of beds in boarding schools will be increased by about 5,000.

In the sphere of national insurance, the allocations for medical care will be increased in 1953 to 9,500 million crowns, as against 4,300 million crowns in 1948, and those for persons unable to earn their living will be 22,800 million crowns as against 12,500 million

crowns in 1948.[1] Table VI shows the estimated expenditure for the financial years 1949 to 1953, in the main branches covered by national insurance.

TABLE VI. EXPENDITURE ON SOCIAL INSURANCE

Item	Expenditure for the period 1949-1953 (1,000 million crowns)	Index of expenditure in 1953 (1948=100)
Family allowances	19.67	...
Maternity benefits	5.33	240
Marriage allowances	3.00	300
Sickness benefits in cash	16.00	138
Sickness benefits in kind	40.60	221
Pensions and employment injury compensation	85.10	194
Other benefits in cash (funeral expenses, etc.)	3.25	200
Construction programme of social insurance services	2.20	...

In the social sphere, special attention will be paid to the following:

(1) the workers' social and vocational training and retraining;

(2) the proper and hygienic equipment of workplaces;

(3) the introduction of health and safety precautions in accordance with the provisions of the plan, the improvement of the system of unified public supervision of industrial safety in all fields and the increase of the number of industrial safety experts and medical officers;

(4) the improvement of the systems of public transport of workers;

(5) the increase of the number of persons catered for by factory canteens, etc.

In respect of health services, the plan provides for the establishment of 119 health centres (regional centres, district centres and branches) and 129 national health institutions, the enlargement of hospitals (7,800 additional beds) and the creation of various specialised health establishments. The increase in the number of medical personnel is shown in table VII.

[1] It should be noted, however, that certain new categories of insured persons will gradually be brought into the sickness insurance and pension insurance schemes, thus making the percentage increase in benefits per head smaller. Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. LVIII, No. 2, August 1948, pp. 151-186: "Social Security in Czechoslovakia".

TABLE VII. INCREASE OF MEDICAL PERSONNEL BY 1953

Profession	Increase	
	Number	Percentage of 1948 figures
Doctors	5,350	52
Veterinary surgeons	283	20
Chemists	1,337	60
Social and health assistants (women)	2,800	179
Nurses	1,874	46
Midwives	1,273	24
Dentists	235	12
Laboratory assistants	1,481	37

In the field of culture and education, the plan provides for a whole series of institutions intended to improve the cultural standard of the people. The investments which are contemplated for this purpose are classified as follows (in million crowns) : schools, 5,386 ; science and arts, 840 ; physical training, 973 ; popular culture, 503 ; cinema, 889 ; radio, 946 ; cultural establishments in undertakings, 321.

Private Consumption.

The volume of private consumption is to increase side by side with the increase in the quantity and quality of consumption goods produced, a policy which is expected to have a satisfactory effect in regard to the food supply and the supply of textiles and footwear. Thus it is estimated that the sums devoted to the purchase of the principal consumption goods and services, calculated at the " fixed planning prices " [1], will increase during the five years of the plan as follows (in million crowns) : food, 37,900 ; textiles, 15,600 ; leather and hides, 3,200 ; rubber, 200 ; metal goods, 2,600 ; wooden goods, 1,300 ; paper, 600 ; printing, 2,400 ; ironmongery, 240 ; chemicals, 2,000 ; lighting and heating, 1,100.

In 1953 the deliveries of certain products on the home market will show, as compared with 1948, the following increases :

Crude fats	67,200 tons
Milk and dairy produce	22.5 million hectolitres
Meat	289,200 tons
Eggs	1,000 million
Sugar	206,000 tons
Wheat flour	193,600 tons

[1] See above, p. 69, footnote 3.

Wool textiles	9,710 tons
Cotton textiles	25,660 tons
Silk textiles (all or part silk)	27.4 million metres
Socks	14.3 million pairs
Principal metal goods	2,600 million crowns
Furniture	1,000 million crowns
Glass	270 million crowns

The plan further provides for greater housing facilities ; according to the estimates, the construction (or reconstruction) of dwelling houses should increase the habitable area available by 9.7 million square metres.

Material Conditions for the Execution of the Plan

The effective execution of the plan depends on the fulfilment of certain material conditions, relating, among other things, to manpower distribution, output, investments, rational organisation of production, etc. The plan takes account of these factors and at the same time indicates the measures to be adopted.

Manpower.

With respect to manpower, the plan provides for the application of a suitable policy aiming at an increase of 5.6 per cent. in the number of workers and at their more efficient distribution. The number of workers in manufacturing industry is to increase by 18.5 per cent., and in the building industry by 50 per cent.

The total addition to the manpower in certain principal branches of activity will be 482,000, allocated as follows : industry, 254,000 [1] ; agriculture, 35,000 [2] ; forestry, 11,000 ; building industry, 105,000 ; transport, 20,000 ; social welfare and health, education and culture, 42,000. On the other hand, the number of persons employed in public administration, trade, banking and insurance will be reduced by 111,000, and the number in agriculture by 94,000 persons. The net result will thus be an increase of 277,000 in the number of persons employed.

The principal means by which this additional manpower will be obtained are the more effective training of young persons entering employment, an increase in the number of women employed in certain branches, the mobilisation of persons who have not yet been employed and the utilisation of manpower in economically underdeveloped areas through the creation of new industries.

Increase of Labour Output.

A numerical increase in manpower, however, will not be sufficient to attain the targets of the plan. It will also be necessary to increase labour output to an extent estimated in the plan at

[1] About two thirds of this number will be in the metal and engineering industries.

[2] This figure shows the increase of permanent agricultural labour ; the total number of persons occupied in agriculture will be decreased by about 5 per cent.

32 per cent. for manufacturing industry, 53 per cent. for the building industry, 20 per cent. for agriculture and 30 per cent. for transport. The United Trade Union Organisation and its branches will be responsible, in collaboration with the managements of establishments and undertakings and other public institutions, for promoting the increase in labour output. For this purpose it must provide for the political and economic training of the workers, encourage their spirit of initiative, develop competition within the undertakings and between the undertakings, make a systematic selection of the more gifted workers with a view to their training for managerial posts, improve the standards of work and gradually introduce piece work, improve the safeguards against industrial accidents, develop social welfare and health institutions and combat absenteeism and high labour turnover.

Investment Policy.

The investments for which the plan provides amount in all to 336,200 million crowns, or about 25 per cent. of the national revenue for the whole period. On this point, the explanatory memorandum states :

> Although this must result in a temporary reduction in direct consumption, the share thus granted to investment is, in view of the present financial situation, entirely justified by the reconstruction and transformation of the national economy. Without these investments it would be impossible to surpass or even to maintain the pre-war standard of living.

The sums provided for are to be allocated as shown in table VIII.

TABLE VIII. ALLOCATION OF INVESTMENTS, 1948-1953
(1,000 million crowns)

Branch of activity	Construction	Other purposes	Total	Percentage of total
Industry	44.6	87.3	131.9	39.2
Agriculture	11.8	15.0	26.8	8.0
Building industry	0.7	3.9	4.6	1.4
Transport	23.1	29.8	52.9	15.7
Commerce and hotel industry	1.9	3.1	5.0	1.5
Housing	39.3	—	39.3	11.7
Social, health and cultural services	14.4	14.2	28.6	8.5
Public administration	41.1	6.0	47.1	14.0
Total	176.9	159.3	336.2	100.0

Foreign Trade.

The volume of foreign trade in 1953 should be 40 per cent. above that reached in 1948. Among other things, the commercial exchanges with countries which have a planned economy will be intensified, and by 1953 they should, as the result of the conclusion of long-term agreements, form nearly 50 per cent. of the total foreign trade of the country.[1] In export trades first place will be given to the engineering industry, and second place to the textile industry, followed by the iron and steel, food, leather, hides and rubber industries.

Execution of the Five-Year Plan

With a view to the execution of the plan the Government will draw up yearly and quarterly programmes. Furthermore, in the event of unforeseen circumstances calculated substantially to change the estimates of the plan, the Government is authorised to take whatever steps may be needed even though normally such action would be within the competence of Parliament, except in the case of constitutional, budgetary or currency matters or matters connected with public finance.

The Central Planning Committee established under the Act of 25 August 1945 concerning the State Economic Council will henceforth become the permanent advisory body of the Government in respect of all questions concerning the execution of the Five-Year Plan. The general secretariat of the Economic Council is authorised to issue binding instructions for the regulation of the planned works, their scope and the methods of application.

The application of the plan must be gradual with regard to prices, wages and income, taxation, consumption and distribution, in order to ensure a just balance between the increased income of the population and the deliveries of consumption goods and ser-

[1] According to *Statisticky Zpravodaj* (Statistical Information of the Czechoslovak Republic), Nos. 7-8, July-August 1948, the distribution of Czechoslovak foreign trade by currency zones in 1947 was as follows:

Zone	Imports		Exports	
	Value (million crowns)	Percentage of total	Value (million crowns)	Percentage of total
U.S.S.R.	1,946	6.72	1,395	4.88
Bulgaria, Yugoslavia, Poland	2,956	10.22	2,882	10.09
Hungary, Austria, Rumania	1,321	4.57	2,195	7.69
Germany	277	0.96	526	1.84
Other continental countries (with their oversea territories), Greece Turkey, Iceland	12,134	41.96	14,177	49.66
Sterling zone	5,497	19.01	4,572	16.02
Dollar zone	4,789	16.56	2,803	9.82
Total	28,920	100.00	28,550	100.00

vices. The planning of costs of production and of distribution will be improved by the introduction of a unified system of accountancy and budgeting for all economic branches and all establishments and undertakings.

The carrying out of the tasks set by the Five-Year Plan is regarded as a civic duty and a matter of honour for every citizen. Each person to whom a task of this character is allotted is required to carry it out conscientiously according to his personal and economic capacity. The economic activities of private individuals and bodies corporate alike must be carried on in accordance with the plan.

The United Trade Union Organisation is to participate in the preparation, application and enforcement of the Five-Year Plan. The United Federations of Agriculturists (Czech and Slovak), the Central Council of Co-operative Societies and other popular organisations are required to ensure, in their respective spheres, that all efforts are intensified and concentrated with a view to the completion of the Five-Year Plan and the most rational execution of the various tasks which have been fixed.

Italian Agricultural Emigration to France

The first post-war Franco-Italian migration agreements, concluded on 22 February and 24 November 1946, were discussed in an article in the Review *which described the difficulties met with in the application of the earlier of the two agreements and the various remedies adopted.*[1] *A special aspect of the problem of Italian emigration to France, namely, the recruitment of agricultural workers, which was dealt with in a further agreement of 3 February 1948, has been the subject of a special study carried out by the Secretariat of the International Co-ordination Committee for European Migratory Movements.*[2] *The conclusions reached as a result of this enquiry and the suggestions submitted by the Secretariat to the Governments concerned have been published in a report* [3], *which is analysed in the following pages.*

At the request of the French Government and with the consent of the Italian Government, the Secretariat of the International Co-ordination Committee for European Migratory Movements (E.MI.CO.) recently enquired into the difficulties which are hampering the emigration of Italian agricultural workers to France. The request was made owing to the fact that in spite of the possibilities of employment in that country and the volume of unemployment in Italy, this movement was not taking place on the scale anticipated in the agreement between the two countries concluded on 3 February 1948.

The enquiry was carried out by two committees, composed of experts appointed by the Governments and including a representative of the International Committee. One of the committees visited

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[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. LV, No. 5, May 1947, pp. 395-402 : "The Franco-Italian Migration Agreements".

[2] This Committee, known as E.MI.CO., was set up following the Manpower Conference held by the Committee of European Economic Co-operation at Rome in January-February 1948, in which the International Labour Organisation participated. The findings of the Manpower Committee of European Economic Co-operation were summarised in *idem*, Vol. LVI, Nos. 5-6, November-December 1947, pp. 566-575 : "Manpower Report of the Committee of European Economic Co-operation".

[3] INTERNATIONAL CO-ORDINATION COMMITTEE FOR EUROPEAN MIGRATORY MOVEMENTS, Studies Series, No. 1 : *Enquête sur l'émigration agricole italienne vers la France, juin-juillet 1948* (Rome).

certain recruiting areas in Italy and the National Italian Migration Centre of Milan during the month of June 1948 ; the other studied the situation in various French departments during July. The results of their enquiries are incorporated in the report which the Secretariat of E.MI.CO. prepared on the basis of these results and of the observations made by a number of Italian and French officials. This report, which was communicated to the two Governments, contains various suggestions as to the measures calculated to facilitate the emigration of Italian agricultural workers to France in the future.

Possibilities of Employment in France

The number of Italian immigrants in French agriculture has always been very large : 64,700 in 1926, 94,700 in 1936, 87,500 in 1945. They may be classified roughly as 50 per cent. wage earners, 35 per cent. share farmers and 15 per cent. smallholders.

At the present time only the immigration of wage earners is contemplated, since openings for farmers proposing to set up on their own account are limited by the present situation on the estate market, the amount of capital required and the need for the intending farmers to become acquainted beforehand with French farming methods. The manpower requirements of French agriculture vary greatly according to district and season, under the influence of climatic, technical, economic, social and psychological factors. There is a shortage of labour in nearly all parts of the country, aggravated by the repatriation of prisoners of war and the departure of German workers. The most urgent need at present is for permanent workers, but seasonal workers are also required, especially as the tendency to concentrate agricultural work in a few months only of the year is an incentive to the farmer to cut down his permanent staff. Seasonal workers are needed in particular for vine, fruit, vegetable and beetroot growing, and there is also a demand for women farm servants.

Obstacles to Migration

Administrative Difficulties

Among the reasons why migration fails to take place on as large a scale as is desired, the Secretariat mentions first the imperfect working of the Recruitment and Selection Agreement of 3 February 1948, even though this Agreement showed a certain progress in the collaboration between the two countries, since it provided that the employer or his representative should participate in the recruiting operations on the spot. Owing to administrative delays the selection committees were set up very late ; moreover, no rules to facilitate rapid and unimpeded selection have yet been established.

There are also delays in other spheres which result in discouraging both employer and worker. The French employers have to follow a very long and costly administrative procedure : applications for manpower have to go through a number of formalities, permits, visas, etc., have to be obtained and the payment of a sum of 6,000 francs is required. Italian workers, particularly in the case of peasants who live far from urban centres, may have difficulty in obtaining passports ; for this purpose they have to submit many documents, which often take a long time to procure, particularly their police records.

The lack of rational recruiting and placing methods has led to a certain mistrust among French employers and Italian workers alike. Sufficient account is not taken of the differences between the farming methods of the two countries or of the variety in contractual relations, with the result that Italian agricultural workers who are accustomed to certain methods of work and certain kinds of contract are often placed in districts where conditions are very different in these respects.

Material Difficulties

While the difficulties connected with the board and lodging provided to the worker may hamper the development of large-scale migration, the main obstacle is due to the present conditions with regard to the wages paid in cash, which are not sufficiently attractive in certain cases. The Italian worker in France who has no dependants can earn as much, whether in cash or in kind (housing, food, laundry), as he can in his own country. Likewise, the worker who emigrates with all his family may achieve a certain competence, since over and above the wages in cash, housing and food he will have a small garden, a poultry yard, etc., and will also receive family allowances at a rate higher than that applicable in Italy.[1] His economic situation is better when the family includes several members able to work.

But where a single man is supporting his parents or brothers and sisters, or a married man has not taken his family with him, the situation is different. Here the wage question is closely bound up with that of the transfer of savings. In the former of the two cases the worker is allowed under the Agreement to transfer to Italy 50 per cent. of his total net wage ; in the latter, he may add to this sum the amount of the family allowance proper. The rate of exchange applied to these remittances is 2.20 lire to the franc.

The Secretariat states that at the present rate of exchange the normal wages paid in French agriculture do not permit a sufficient margin of savings for an Italian worker who has to support the family he has left behind in Italy. Examples are given in the report.

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[1] Particulars with regard to the family allowance schemes in the two countries may be found in the general study published in *International Labour Review*, Vol. LVII, Nos. 4 and 5, April and May 1948, pp. 315-333 and 456-477 : "Family Allowance Schemes in 1947".

The average wage of a herdsman or cowman in the district of Modena in 1946-1947 was 18,827.4 lire a month, supplemented by payments in kind, such as housing, the right to a garden, the possibility of raising poultry or pigs. The persons consulted were unanimously of opinion that a worker who migrates alone must send his family in Italy about 20,000 lire a month. Assuming that he is paid 4,250 francs a month plus family allowances, and that his personal expenses amount to 50 francs a day, he would be able to remit 8,624 lire to his family if he has two children, or 14,168 lire if he has three children. Should the rate of exchange for remittances be raised from 2.20 to 3.41 lire to the franc—the rate applied in the case of beetroot workers—the corresponding amounts would be 11,334 lire and 16,878 lire respectively.

Progess of Recruitment

The number of workers recruited has obviously been affected by these difficulties.

From 1 January to 15 May 1948 the number of contracts offered for employment in France was 2,134 and the number of workers recruited by the employment offices was 3,693. The number of workers selected by the French committee up to 15 May 1948 was 871. At each stage of the recruiting operations there is a substantial decline in figures. This is largely due to the attitude of the intending emigrants themselves, who often change their mind or become discouraged by the long waiting, to administrative delays and to eliminations as a result of technical and medical selection. In certain cases trade union hostility has contributed towards reducing the number of candidates for emigration.

In the winter of 1947-1948, 453 employment contracts were drawn up in respect of 780 candidates registered, but the number definitely concluded was only 310. As a result of the Agreement of 3 February 1948, 2,763 workers were requested to present themselves at the Milan centre, but only 2,150 appeared. Out of this number, 1,152 were engaged. (The operations to which these figures refer had not yet been completed at the time of registration.) In the province of Padua recruitment took place in April and June. On the former occasion, 563 applications were received, but only 410 persons appeared for the technical selection examination ; 55 went away before taking the examination ; 116 failed in the examination. Out of the 239 remaining, 16 did not appear for the medical examination and 19 were found unfit. Only 143 left for the Milan centre. The other 61, as to whom no further information was received, probably either preferred to remain in Italy for the well-paid harvest work or were unable to obtain the necessary documents. The French medical examination also eliminated quite a number.

Although the following data relate to all categories of workers (industry and mining as well as agriculture) it is interesting to note

that out of 3,800 workers who came up for medical examination at the Milan centre during the period 1 March to 7 June 1948, 256 were rejected. The main causes of rejection were the following: eye defects (100 cases); defects of the digestive system (29); dental defects (25); pulmonary complaints (26); cardio-vascular complaints (16).

Recommendations of the Secretariat

To remedy the situation, the Secretariat of the International Co-ordination Committee for European Migratory Movements suggests to the two Governments various measures. After having emphasised that the participation of the employer or his representative in the recruiting operations can prevent many difficulties, and that the Governments should study the forms and limits for trade union collaboration at the various stages of recruitment and placing, while ensuring that any abuse in the field of Government prerogatives and responsibilities is avoided, it draws attention to certain provisions calculated to accelerate and simplify the administrative steps to be taken, whether in Italy or in France.

So far as the economic situation offered to migrant workers is concerned, the Secretariat, while expressing the hope that a satisfactory solution may be found with regard to the rate of exchange—as has already been done in the case of miners—suggests that the Governments should for preference promote the migration of those groups of persons who, having less need to send remittances home, are less discouraged by the narrow margin for saving, that is to say, single men without dependants and whole families including at least two or three members able to work.

It also draws the attention of the Governments to the desirability of adopting a recruitment and placing system that will take account of the workers' previous experience and of the requirements to be met in his new surroundings, in order to reduce his period of adjustment, to increase his output and to avoid any lowering of his status. For this purpose it would be desirable to encourage the practice of drawing up the contracts in the individual workers' names, and to ensure that workers may be nominated not only by relatives and friends but also by duly authorised bodies.

The Secretariat concludes by declaring that the two Governments should place all these questions on the agenda of the Joint Italo-French Committee, in the work of which it is very willing to collaborate.

STATISTICS

Explanatory Notes to the Tables on Cost of Living, Wages, Hours of Work, Unemployment and Employment

These explanatory notes, which give the principal points in the method of compilation of the different statistics, are published once a year in the January issue of the Review.[1]

The data given in the periodical tables of the *Review* are compiled by the International Labour Office from figures published or communicated by the statistical authorities of the various countries; in a few cases, statistics compiled by non-official bodies are used. Most of the series given in the form of index numbers are computed by the Office with the base 1937=100.[2] There are many differences in the methods of compilation of these statistics in different countries, the more important of which are indicated as far as possible in the table headings. Account of these must be taken in interpreting the figures, but, on the whole, the statistics give a reliable picture of fluctuations in time, and it is between these that international comparisons can most usefully be made.

In the tables on employment, unemployment, wages, and hours of work, an essential distinction is made between the different kinds (or sources) of statistics. Each kind constitutes a more or less appropriate measure of the phenomenon dealt with, and is subject to special qualifications, which are mentioned in the following notes. The *economic scope* of each series [3] is indicated by mention of the main economic groups (agriculture, mining, manufacturing, construction, transport, commerce, services and administration) covered, in accordance with the classification used by the Office.[4]

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[1] The statistics of cost of living and of employment and unemployment now appear every month; the statistics of wages and of hours of work appear in the second month of each quarter (*i.e.*, February, May, August and November). For details of the methods of computation of each series, see the descriptions commencing with the June 1948 issue of the *Review*.

[2] In the case of series dating back to a different year, the index figures are printed in italics.

[3] This is not indicated in the unemployment table, on account of the technical difficulties involved in certain cases.

[4] Cf. *Year Book of Labour Statistics*, 1947-48, p. xii.

The mention of one of these groups does not mean that the statistics cover all the branches of which it is composed, but that they cover at least the most important of them ; when a group is represented only by one or two branches of small importance (for example, " mining " by quarrying, or " transport " by tramways), it is not mentioned in the heading. In some tables, these indications are supplemented by mention of the *categories of employees* covered (wage earners and salaried employees ; skilled and unskilled workers ; men and women). These distinctions should not be taken in too strict a sense ; some of them are based on conceptions admitting of rather widely differing interpretation from country to country. Finally, the mention at the foot of the columns of the *number of persons* covered by the statistics at a recent date makes it possible, by comparing the figure given with the total number of workers in the category or economic group in question, to estimate approximately the extent to which the series is representative.

Figures covering the average of a quarter are given against one of the months of the quarter, with supplementary explanations in a footnote.

Separate figures for the different economic branches are published in the *Year Book of Labour Statistics*.

Countries are arranged by continents in the alphabetical order of their English names.

Symbols and Types Employed in the Tables

The sign . signifies : " figures do not exist ".
The sign ... signifies : " figures not yet received ".
The sign * signifies : " provisional figures ".
The sign — signifies : " figures are nil or negligible ".
The sign ° signifies : " covering men only " (wages tables only).
The sign ʳ signifies : " figure revised since the previous issue ".
The sign ᵉ signifies : " economic group represented by a few branches only ".
The sign —— between two figures of a series signifies that the former series has been replaced by another, or revised.
Figures in *thick-faced* type : indices **(100)** of the base year (1937).
Figures in *italics* : index numbers with a year other than 1937 as base year.
Figures within *brackets* : series subject to certain reservations.

Cost of Living and Food Prices

The tables show index numbers of the cost of living covering various groups of expenditure and, in the lower half, the corresponding index numbers of retail food prices.[1]

[1] In some countries the index given under food includes also certain articles of fuel and light which it has not been possible to exclude ; moreover, for two of these countries, no general index being available, the index of food and fuel and light appears also under cost of living. Index numbers of the groups fuel and light, clothing, and rent, not covered by these tables, are given in the *Year Book of Labour Statistics*, 1947-48, table XIX.

The object of cost-of-living index numbers is to show the fluctuations in the purchasing power of money or in average retail prices, calculated with reference to the expenditure necessary to maintain a given standard of living or type of consumption ; they are usually compiled by weighting the prices, absolute or relative, of a certain number of articles of common consumption according to their relative importance. Average prices are recorded regularly (in a more or less large number of towns in each country), and the weights are based either on family living studies, or on theoretical budgets, or on estimates of the total consumption of, or total expenditure on, the items in question in the whole country during a given period.

As a result of the many variations in the methods of computing cost-of-living index numbers (for example, in geographical scope, the groups of expenditure represented in the general index, and the items included in each group), the index numbers are far from being equally reliable or equally representative of price movements. In any case, they can be used only to measure *fluctuations* in time of the cost of living in a given country, and not to compare the *levels* of the cost of living in different countries at any given time.

The series of index numbers in the table have been recalculated for the most part by the International Labour Office on the uniform base 1937=100. This change of base has been effected by dividing the index for each date by the corresponding index for 1937 (annual average) and multiplying the quotient by 100.

The headings of the table show the original base period of the index numbers, the main groups of expenditure covered—food, fuel and light, clothing, rent, and miscellaneous—and the number of towns in which prices are recorded (in some cases this number varies according to the expenditure group).

WAGES

The tables on the general level of wages are intended to show the nominal value of wages per worker as well as the fluctuations in wages both nominal and real (that is, account being taken of changes in the cost of living or the purchasing power of money) ; they show :

(a) rates or *earnings per hour*—that is, the remuneration for a fixed unit of working time ;

(b) earnings per day, week, or *month*—the length of these units of working time being based on time actually worked on the average by the workers employed during such time periods (whether normal time, overtime, or short time).

Different kinds of statistics have been used in order to obtain these different series, each kind lending itself more or less appropriately to the purpose in view.

(1) The *statistics of rates* are used only in section *(a)*. They are based on the conditions laid down in collective agreements or fixed by decisions of arbitration courts or other authorities or unilaterally by the employers, or are merely the wages recognised by custom. As a rule these standard rates apply only to adult time workers and normal hours of work ; the degree in which they are representative of wages paid to all workers in the occupations in question is limited, and varies from one country to another. In countries in which the collective regulation of wages is widespread and the rates fixed are generally applied, the data may be considered to be representative of actual wages. In some countries the rates are described as " minimum " rates, but this expression cannot always be taken in its strict sense. The figures in the table relate to the *general level of wages*, and are usually weighted according to the numerical importance of the occupations covered, and in some cases according to the regions concerned, at a specified date.

(2) *Statistics of earnings* in the strict sense furnish data on wages per hour as well as wages per day, week, or month (sections *(a)* and *(b)* of the table). The data are usually based upon the payrolls of a number of representative establishments [1] : they express the average wages (including bonuses, allowances, etc.) actually paid per worker (including time and piece workers) per time unit in the establishments covered for time actually worked. As the number of establishments covered by the statistics is not usually complete, and may include an undue proportion of those which offer more favourable conditions of remuneration, the averages obtained may not always be fully representative of the wage level of the whole body of workers in the branches in question. Earnings per hour or per day are generally obtained by dividing the total wages paid during a given period by the number of man-hours or man-days worked during that period, and earnings per week by dividing the total wages paid in a given week by the number of workers employed during that week. Fluctuations in average earnings are therefore due not only to changes in rates of remuneration, indicated in the statistics of rates, but also to changes in the structure of the samples upon which they are based and, in the case of earnings per day, week, or month, to changes in the number of hours of work in these units of working time. In some countries, the averages are weighted according to the numerical importance of the various branches at a specified date, in order to eliminate, to some extent, the influence of structural changes. In some cases the chain method has also been used in order to eliminate the effect of variations in the number of the establishments covered.

Data on earnings per day, week, or month (section *(b)* of the table) may also be obtained from social insurance records ; these data are compiled either by dividing the total amount of insured

[1] These statistics correspond to what are termed *statistics of establishments* in the other tables.

wages by the number of days worked, or from the numbers of insured persons in the different wage classes, from which an average wage can be computed. These statistics usually give lower averages than the statistics of earnings described above, because existing insurance schemes generally set an upper limit above which the wage is not taken into consideration, and also because the total number of insured persons includes certain classes of low-paid workers which are often neglected in other statistics.

From the above statement it follows that hourly wages based on statistics of rates are not exactly comparable with those based on statistics of earnings. The same applies to the data on wages per day, per week, or per month, given by the statistics of earnings and by those of social insurance. Comparisons between these different kinds of statistics can therefore be made only with reservations. As regards the *categories of workers* covered, it should be noted that, although certain insurance statistics cover salaried employees at least to some extent, the statistics of rates and earnings refer generally only to wage earners.

The *index numbers* which appear in the middle and lower parts of the tables have mostly been calculated by the Office. Those of *money wages* are either computed directly from the absolute amounts given in the upper part of the tables, or obtained by converting published index numbers to the common base.

A number of index numbers compiled by the Office has been added in order to obtain series which are more comparable internationally. Thus separate series for men and women, skilled and unskilled, etc., have been combined into a general series by applying weights representing the relative importance of their components in the base period ; the original data have been converted to a different time unit, with the help of statistics of actual hours of work, for example, earnings per day divided by hours worked per day to obtain an index of hourly earnings, or hourly rates multiplied by hours actually worked per week, to obtain an approximate index of weekly earnings. As the indices thus obtained are approximations, it has not been considered appropriate to give here the absolute amounts on which they have been based.

The index numbers of *real wages* (showing the purchasing power of wages) are obtained by applying the cost-of-living index numbers (given in another table) to the index numbers of money wages. On account of the differences in the methods of calculating cost-of-living indices, and the consequent variation in their reliability and sensitivity, the index numbers of real wages must be regarded as less exact than those of money wages. It should be noted also that too great importance should not be attached to slight fluctuations due to seasonal movements of prices reflected in the cost-of-living indices. In some cases, the cost-of-living index numbers relate to a single town, while the statistics of money wages cover the whole country or certain areas ; in such cases the index numbers of real wages are given within brackets.

Hours of Work

The statistics of the general level of hours of work show :

Table *(a)* : the average number of hours worked per worker (per day, week, fortnight or month) ;

Table *(b)* : the percentage distribution of workers according to the number of hours worked classified in appropriate groups.

Statistics of normal hours of work to which the rates of wages in table *(a)* above apply are not compiled at present.

These statistics refer in most cases to *manufacturing industry*, as a rule excluding building. They are based on reports from selected establishments and vary in their degree of representativeness from country to country.

Statistics of the *average number of hours worked per worker* are generally obtained by dividing the total number of man-hours worked during a certain period in the establishments covered by the total number of man-days worked during this period (where the data are expressed in hours per day), or by dividing the total number of man-hours worked during a week, fortnight, or month by the total number of workers on the payroll during the same period (where the data are expressed in terms of these time units). The lower half of table *(a)* gives index numbers of average hours worked, computed by the Office on the base 1937=100.

Statistics of the *percentage distribution of workers by hours worked* are based either upon the hours worked by each worker during a specified period or upon estimates of the time during which the establishments, or their branches, shops, or groups of workers, have been at work. The ranges of hours adopted vary from country to country, but the Office has regrouped the figures so as to give three or four classes as uniform as possible.

Finally, it should be noted that the series expressed in different periods of time (day, week, etc.), both those of average hours and those of distribution by hours worked, cannot be transformed into a uniform period owing to such circumstances as the varying number of days in different months, the Saturday half-holiday, the method of compiling the number of workers on the payroll, and fluctuations in labour turnover.

Unemployment

The statistics of unemployment cover persons who, though seeking work and physically able to work, are unable to obtain employment, thus excluding, in general, persons out of work on

account of sickness or accident. Persons directly involved in trade disputes are also excluded. The statistics generally relate only to the wholly unemployed.[1]

The statistics vary in scope and value according to the type and sources of the data, discussed below, and in any case are to be considered as having greater value from the point of view of showing fluctuations or changes in unemployment than from that of giving absolute numbers or percentages.

(a) The *numbers* of the unemployed are those seeking work or registered as unemployed, and the figures relate usually to those unemployed on a particular day or during a relatively short period, *e.g.*, a week ; they present therefore an idea of the size of the problem of unemployment within the scope—branches of industry covered, compulsory or voluntary insurance, trade union provision, etc.—of the figures as defined. Fluctuations in numbers reflect not only the fluctuations in unemployment itself, as affected by prosperity, depression or seasonal variations in economic activity, but also, over a period, changes in population or in industrial and social structure.

(b) The *percentages* of unemployment represent the ratio between the number unemployed and the total of employed and unemployed. They may be calculated either as the direct ratio of the workers unemployed on a particular day to the total of employed and unemployed at the same date, or as the percentage of the man-days lost through unemployment during a period in relation to the total possible man-days that might have been worked during the same period. Obviously, the percentages must be interpreted in relation to the economic scope of the data. Fluctuations in these percentages reflect principally the fluctuations in the level of unemployment itself.

The figures vary greatly as to completeness and reliability, depending upon their source, *i.e.*, the type of institution furnishing the data, its degree of development, the economic scope or coverage, and the definition of " unemployed " adopted.[2]

Six main *types* of statistics may be distinguished :

(1) *Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics.* These are a reliable source of statistics of unemployment. Their scope is defined by the insurance legislation, which in general, has a broad industrial coverage. An unemployed person is, generally, a person registered with the insurance institution in accordance with administrative

[1] A few series cover the partially unemployed, but they offer only a very imperfect measure of this phenomenon. Some information on partial unemployment is contained in the statistics of hours of work, particularly in the figures relating to the distribution of workers according to hours worked.

[2] Cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE, Studies and Reports, Series N (Statistics), No. 7 : *Methods of Statistics of Unemployment* (Geneva, 1925) ; and New Series, No. 7 (Part 1) : *Employment, Unemployment and Labour Force Statistics : A Study of Methods* (Geneva, 1948).

regulations, usually with a view to claiming benefit. The percentage of unemployment is obtained by comparing the number of unemployed with the total number of insured persons. The comparability of the percentages from country to country is of course affected by differences in scope of the insurance legislation as well as by differences in the administrative regulations in force ; even the comparability of the percentages over a period of time within the same country may be subject to reservations if important changes have taken place in the insurance legislation or in the administrative regulations governing the registration of the unemployed and the payment of benefit to them.

(2) *Labour force sample surveys.* Although not as yet widespread, the sampling technique for estimating the number of the unemployed has proved to be a highly satisfactory and reliable method. It may be considered to yield the best over-all figures on unemployment since, in particular, it covers certain groups of persons, such as new workers seeking jobs but not previously employed, who are not included in insurance schemes.

(3) *Trade union fund statistics.* The figures in these series are affected by the fact that membership of a trade union fund or of a trade union is voluntary. The result is that the statistics of the *numbers* of the trade union unemployed are without great significance, since they do not necessarily represent all the unemployed in the industrial branches covered by the trade unions, but only those who have availed themselves of the unemployment benefit privilege ; and even the *percentages*, which are based on the ratios of the unemployed trade union members to the total membership of the fund, may be affected if the members of the union constitute a favoured group from the point of view of the incidence of unemployment. Fluctuations in numbers or percentages may be influenced by the effect of economic prosperity or depression on the coverage of the funds, and the scope of the figures also depends on the development of the trade union funds and the widely varying conditions governing the recording of unemployed workers and the payment of benefits to them. The statistics may thus be fairly satisfactory in some countries, and incomplete and somewhat unreliable in others.

(4) *Trade union statistics.* These statistics are based on reports compiled by trade unions of the numbers of unemployed among their members, irrespective of whether they are in receipt of benefits or not ; they give the percentage of the total trade union membership so recorded. Their scope varies with the extent of the trade union movement and with the extent to which the trade unions compile data on their unemployed members ; the definition and degree of accuracy of the term " unemployed " may also vary widely.

(5) *Employment office statistics.* These series are based on the applications for employment registered at the offices and usually

give those pending at the end of the month or other period. The value of these statistics varies widely : in cases where the employment offices function in close connection with unemployment insurance, registration with the office being a condition precedent to obtaining unemployment benefits, these statistics are perhaps comparable in reliability to insurance figures. This applies also, in virtually the same degree, where the offices operate in connection with large unemployment relief schemes, so long as the conditions for granting relief are not subjected to important changes. Where, however, registration with the office is entirely voluntary, and especially where the offices are not widely patronised by employees seeking work or by employers seeking workers, the data may often be incomplete and unreliable. In such cases the scope of the figures is determined partly by the manner in which the system of employment offices is organised and partly by the extent to which workers are accustomed to register and the advantages which registration brings them.

In general, however, the term " applicant for work " is not identical with the term " unemployed " ; there is not the close scrutiny to exclude persons not unemployed in the strict sense that is found in unemployment benefit plans ; on the contrary, applicants for work may include the sick, those on strike, those employed in relief work as well as a larger or smaller number of persons who, though employed, are seeking transfer to other work in order to better their conditions of employment. On the other hand, it is possible that not all the unemployed are registered. The scope of the figures is also difficult to assess. In general, therefore, these figures cannot be considered as comparable from country to country, though their fluctuations from time to time within a country should reflect changes in the prevalence of unemployment. In very few cases can satisfactory percentages of unemployment be calculated from them, since knowledge of the exact scope of the registrations is usually lacking.

(6) *Estimates.* Estimates of the numbers unemployed, made usually by Government agencies although in some cases by private organisations, give figures for over-all unemployment in broad economic sectors of industry, usually based on all the data available, including the various series already discussed as well as data from the censuses of the economically active population. Such estimates may in fact present a more comprehensive picture of unemployment and its fluctuations than the various statistical series described above ; at best, however, they are subject to a considerable margin of error, which varies from series to series, depending upon the methods and data employed in their construction.

The *economic scope* of these different statistics, as already indicated, varies with the series and in many cases is difficult to determine. Over-all estimates are usually definite as to scope ; the scope of compulsory insurance statistics corresponds to that of the insurance legislation. Trade union figures depend in part

upon the scope of the trade union movement and in part upon the extent to which within the movement unemployment is recorded or included in benefit plans. The scope of employment office statistics is most difficult to ascertain, varying with the nature of the system, custom and advantages of registration, as well as with the industrial scope of the placement operations. In general, mining and manufacturing are the most fully represented, transport and commerce are less fully represented, while agriculture is scarcely covered at all.

Employment

The index numbers of employment given in the periodical tables of the *Review* are intended to show changes in the general level of employment, on the one hand, in *manufacturing industry*, and, on the other, in *economic activity* as a whole (usually excluding agriculture). The series limited to manufacturing are the most homogeneous in scope, and consequently the most comparable internationally.[1] These series give in many cases two measures of employment: numbers employed and total hours worked. The series of a general character vary in scope from country to country [2] and are therefore comparable only subject to important reservations. They relate only to numbers employed and not to total hours worked.

The index numbers of *persons employed*—tables II and III *(a)*—show the fluctuations in the total number of persons employed, generally represented by the total at work at a specified date, but sometimes by the average number during a given period, no distinction being made between persons working full time and those working more or less than full time. Fluctuations in these numbers reflect the effect, on the one hand, of factors connected with cyclical and seasonal variations in economic activity (including action by the public authorities), and, on the other, of trends in population growth and changes in the industrial and social structure of the population; the two last-mentioned factors may result, other things being equal—that is, the proportion of persons employed remaining the same—in a gradual rise, in the course of a few years, in the level of the employment indices, corresponding to the increased number of persons gainfully employed.

The index numbers of *total number of hours worked in manufacturing employment*—table III *(b)*—show changes in total hours during a specified period—for example, a month, a quarter, or some other

[1] The chief difference in scope in these series is that in some series (indicated by a note) building and construction are covered; owing to the importance of these branches and the fact that changes in employment in them are often different from those in manufacturing industry, inclusion may have a marked effect on the employment index.

[2] The difference in scope in these series is indicated in the headings to the table. It will be seen that most of these series cover manufacturing, mining, and, to a varying degree, transport and commerce; agriculture is included only in a few series.

period falling within a month or a quarter. These series thus indicate the changes in the " volume of employment ", taking account not only of the number of persons employed, but also of fluctuations in their hours of work.

Most of the index numbers in these three tables have been computed by the Office, either from the absolute figures or by transferring the base of the original series.

The data are obtained from statistics of different types :

(1) *Compulsory social insurance statistics* (generally sickness or accident insurance). The number of insured persons or of contributions paid furnishes a measure of the number of persons in employment (unemployed persons being exempt from the obligation to pay contributions). The statistics constitute a kind of continuous census of employment, but their scope is determined by the provisions of the insurance scheme and affected by any changes that may be made in it.

(2) *Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics.* The numbers employed are obtained by deducting the number of unemployed from the total number of insured workers. The scope of the figures is subject to the same limitations as that of data derived from other branches of compulsory insurance ; further, the significance of the number of unemployed depends, as pointed out above, on the provisions relating to registration, and the right to unemployment benefit ; in many cases, also, figures of the total number of insured persons are not regularly kept up to date.

(3) *Statistics of establishments.* These are based on the numbers of workers on the payrolls of certain establishments at a given date in each month or quarter, and sometimes also on the total number of hours worked during a specific pay period. Three different types of statistics are distinguished in the table headings :

Type A : Statistics covering all establishments which fulfil certain conditions (*e.g.*, having more than 5 or 10 employees ; using motive power ; having an annual output of more than a certain value) : these data are taken either from *ad hoc* statistics or from statistics of industrial production which give at the same time the numbers employed. These indices closely reflect fluctuations in employment, subject to small errors due to the exclusion of small establishments.

Type B : Statistics relating to a sample of establishments, which may be large or small and more or less constant. In order to allow for variations in the number of returns received, the indices are compiled either by relating the figures at each date to those of the same establishments at the basic date, or by means of chain indices (comparing the figures received for each date with those of the same establishments at the preceding date, and then compiling a chain of ratios). It is difficult, in any case, to ensure that the sample of establishments is always equally representative of the

trends resulting from general population movements and structural changes ; usually the series in question take only a part of these factors into account, and they may for this reason be subject to a small bias which, being cumulative, may become appreciable after several years.

Type A/B : In certain cases, statistics of type A, available only at long intervals and with a certain delay in publication, have been combined with statistics of type B, available more frequently and more promptly ; the combination has been made either by chaining or by interpolation.

(4) *Estimates.* In some countries the index numbers are based upon estimates of persons employed made by governmental agencies or by private organisations utilising series of the other types in conjunction with census or other information. The value of such estimates obviously depends upon the specific data and method employed.

(5) *Labour force sample surveys.* In two or three countries, figures on employment (as well as on unemployment) are obtained from labour force sample surveys, a technique which, when based on adequate sampling methods, has been found effective and reliable. Where available these present the most satisfactory and complete figures relating to the total civilian labour force, especially as regards the inclusion of unpaid family workers and seasonal workers, groups which may often be omitted when other methods are used.

(Base: 1937 = 100)

Country	Africa						America		
	Egypt	French Equatorial Africa	Northern Rhodesia	Southern Rhodesia	Sudan	Union of South Africa	Canada	Newfoundland	United States
Town or no. of localities	Cairo	Brazzaville[1]	Whole country	5	Omdurman[2]	9	64-11	St. John's	56-34
Original base (=100)	June-Aug. 1939	Oct. 1938	Aug. 1939	Aug. 1939	1938	1938	1935-1939	Oct. 1938	1935-1939
Cost of living									
Composition of the index	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-d*	*a, b, d*[3]	*a-d*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*
1937	.	.	.	100	.	100	100	.	100
1938	.	100[4]	.	101	100	104	101	100[4]	98
1939	100	.	100[5]	100	*100*	104	100	*104*[4]	97
1940	*113*	.	.	101	*110*	107	104	.	98
1941	*138*	.	.	105	*130*	112	110	*128*[6]	102
1942	*184*	.	.	111	*151*	122	116	*140*	113
1943	*242*	.	*119*[6]	117	*173*	129	117	*149*	120
1944	*279*	.	*123*	122	*172*[7]	133	117	*161*	122
1945	*293*	*307*	*126*	124	*164*	137	118	*160*	125
1946	*287*	*377*	*129*	129	*177*	139	122	*163*	136
1947	*279*	*518*	*138*	132	*215*	145	134	*172*	155
1947: Nov.	*282*	.	*139*	136	*233*	146	142	*179*	161
Dec.	*280*	.	*139*	137	*229*	146	144	*180*	163
1948: Jan.	*281*	*599*	*140*	137	*237*	147	147	*182*	164
Feb.	*281*	.	*140*	138	*246*	148	148	*182*	163
Mar.	*283*	.	*140*	139	*248*	150	149	*184*	163
April	*282*	*703*	*141*	140	*253*	150	150	*185*	165
May	*281*	.	*141*	142	*265*	152	151	*183*	166
June	...	.	*142*	142	*289*	154	152	*182*	167
July	...	*712*	...	142	...	156	155	*184*	169
Aug.	...	.	...	142	...	155	156	*190*	170
Sept.	...	.	...	143	...	157	157	*185*	170
Oct.	...	...	...	143	...	157	158	*186*	169
Nov.	...	.	...	143	...	...	158	...	...
Food									
1937	.[8]	.	.	.[9]	.	100	100	.	100
1938	.	100[4]	.	.	100	105	101	100[4]	93
1939	100	.	100[5]	100[9]	*103*	104	97	*109*[4]	90
1940	*112*	.	.	.	*111*	107	102	.	92
1941	*141*	.	.	*110*	*130*	115	112	*138*[6]	100
1942	*194*	.	.	*116*	*138*	127	123	*163*	118
1943	*263*	.	*120*[6]	*120*	*139*	138	127	*174*	131
1944	*312*	.	*126*	*123*	*144*	144	127	*180*	129
1945	*325*	*310*[4]	*135*	*127*	*156*	147	129	*184*	132
1946	*310*	*381*	*140*	*132*	*181*	151	136	*190*	152
1947	*298*	*524*	*151*	*144*	*229*	159	155	*203*	184
1947: Nov.	*302*	.	*152*	*155*	*248*	159	168	*214*	192
Dec.	*298*	.	*154*	*159*	*243*	161	173	*216*	196
1948: Jan.	*301*	*620*	*155*	*158*	*254*	162	177	*217*	199
Feb.	*299*	.	*155*	*162*	*267*	163	180	*218*	194
Mar.	*302*	.	*155*	*163*	*271*	165	180	*222*	192
April	*299*	*728*	*158*	*165*	*278*	165	181	*223*	197
May	*298*	.	*159*	*169*	*294*	167	185	*219*	200
June	...	.	*161*	*166*	*290*	169	188	*216*	203
July	...	*741*	...	*162*	...	162	195	*218*	206
Aug.	...	.	...	*157*	...	161	196	*232*	206
Sept.	...	.	...	*161*	...	166	198	*221*	204
Oct.	...	...	...	*162*	...	167	199	*221*	201
Nov.	...	.	...	*164*	...	...	198	...	...

Composition of the indices: *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Europeans. [2] Natives. [3] Since July 1941, *a-e*. [4] Oct. [5] Aug. [6] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. [7] As from Jan. 1944, the index is calculated on a slightly different basis. [8] Including heating and soap. [9] Up to June 1941, including heating and lighting.

INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*
(Base: 1937 = 100)

Country	America *(cont.)*									
	Argentina	Bolivia	Brazil		British Guiana	British Honduras	British West Indies			
Town or no. of localities	Buenos Aires	La Paz	Rio de Janeiro	São Paulo	Georgetown	Belize	Barbados	Jamaica (Kingston)	St. Vincent	Trinidad
Original base (=100)	1943	Dec. 1936	1928-1929	1939	Mar.-Dec. 1938	Sept. 1939	Sept. 1939	Aug. 1939	Aug. 1939	1935
Cost of living										
Composition of the index	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*
1937	100	100	100	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
1938	99	131	104	.	100[1]	.	.	.	.	98[2]
1939	101	162	107	100	.	100[3]	100[3]	100[4]	100[4]	100[3]
1940	103	217	111	*105*	.	.	*120*	*120*	.	*114*
1941	106	278	124	*117*	.	.	*130*	*135*	.	*124*
1942	112	361	139	*130*	*160*[5]	*135*[4]	*151*	*152*	*166*[7]	*141*
1943	113	441	154	*150*	*163*[8]	*151*	*165*	*157*	*179*	*163*
1944	113	470	170	*191*	*160*	*155*	*178*	*159*	*184*	*172*
1945	135	496	197	*232*	*159*	*166*	*187*	*159*	*188*	*173*
1946	159	533	222	*276*	*174*	*169*	*207*	*165*	*194*	*181*
1947	180	642	284	*328*	*186*	*206*	*226*	*195*	*208*	*196*
1947 : Nov.	186	665	278	*334*	*192*	.	*226*	*206*	*213*	*196*
Dec.	191	696	284	*330*	*191*	.	*226*	*206*	*214*	*199*
1948 : Jan.	189	...	284	*355*	*196*	*206*	*226*	*207*	*222*	*200*
Feb.	188	...	285	*356*	*194*	.	*227*	*211*	*223*	*200*
Mar.	191	...	287	*359*	*193*	.	*227*	*215*	*225*	*200*
April	...	...	292	*365*	*193*	*211*	*228*	*215*	*225*	*200*
May	...	...	292	*364*	*194*	.	*231*	*218*	*224*	*200*
June	...	...	...	*373*	*195*	.	*231*	*246*	*224*	*201*
July	...	...	...	*373*	*198*	*210*	...	*250*	*226*	*201*
Aug.	...	...	...	*369*	*199*	.	...	*252*	*227*	*201*
Sept.	...	...	...	...	...	.	...	*249*	*221*	...
Oct.	...	...	...	...	...	*209*	...	*253*	*220*	...
Nov.	...	...	...	...	...	.	...	...	...	...
Food										
1937	100	100	100	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
1938	95	124	100	.	100[1]	.	.	.	.	99[2]
1939	96	142	102	100	.	100[3]	100[3]	100[4]	100[4]	100[3]
1940	97	176	108	*107*	.	.	*124*	*124*	.	*116*
1941	101	248	116	*121*	.	.	*132*	*133*	.	*123*
1942	110	316	131	*134*	*170*[5]	*136*[4]	*152*	*144*	...	*146*
1943	112	360	152	*153*	*164*[8]	*156*	*162*	*144*	...	*173*
1944	116	405	175	*201*	*154*	*161*	*164*	*139*	*172*	*185*
1945	133	424	209	*245*	*156*	*173*	*165*	*143*	*175*	*187*
1946	161	472	240	*312*	*176*	*176*	*176*	*154*	*182*	*202*
1947	185	623	278	*373*	*185*	*216*	*213*	*177*	*193*	*227*
1947 : Nov.	192	661	265	*374*	*194*	.	*223*	*182*	*198*	*227*
Dec.	198	667	280	*368*	*196*	.	*223*	*182*	*198*	*233*
1948 : Jan.	191	...	...	*411*	*198*	*219*	*223*	*185*	*210*	*234*
Feb.	190	...	...	*413*	*198*	.	*223*	*191*	*210*	*234*
Mar.	193	...	...	*425*	*198*	.	*225*	*193*	*213*	*234*
April	...	...	...	*435*	*198*	*225*	*225*	*193*	*213*	*234*
May	...	...	...	*434*	*198*	.	*225*	*193*	*213*	*234*
June	...	...	...	*448*	*198*	.	*225*	*246*	*214*	*236*
July	...	...	...	*449*	*201*	*219*	...	*246*	*214*	*236*
Aug.	...	...	...	*442*	*202*	.	...	*246*	*214*	*236*
Sept.	...	...	...	...	...	.	...	*241*	*205*	...
Oct.	...	...	...	...	...	*220*	...	*247*	*205*	...
Nov.	...	...	...	...	...	.	...	...	...	...

Composition of the indices: *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Mar.-Dec. [2] Jan. [3] Sept. [4] Aug. [5] Aug.-Dec. 1939 = 100. [6] June-Nov. [7] Sept.-Dec. [8] Apr.-Dec.

INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*
(Base: 1937 = 100)

Country	AMERICA *(cont.)*									
	Chile	Colombia	Costa Rica	Dominican Republic	Guatemala	Mexico	Nicaragua	Panama	Paraguay	Peru
Town or no. of localities	Santiago	Bogotá	San José	Trujillo City	Guatemala	Mexico City	Managua	Panama	Asunción	Lima
Original base (=100)	Mar. 1928	Feb. 1937	1936	Nov. 1941	1937	1939	1939	Oct. 1939-June 1940	1938	1934-36
Cost of living										
Composition of the index	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a	a-c	a	a	a-c, e	a-e
1937	100	100	100	.	.	100	.	.	.	100
1938	104	113	101	.	.	114	.	.	100	101
1939	106	118	101	.	.	116	.	.	*109*	100
1940	119	114	99	.	.	117	.	.	*113*	107
1941	137	112	102	100[1]	.	121	.	.	*128*	117
1942	173	122	123	*120*	.	140	.	.	*144*	131
1943	201	141	158	*150*	.	183	.	.	*176*	143
1944	224	170	167	*174*	.	230	.	.	*193*	164
1945	244	189	177	*181*	.	247	.	.	*214*	182
1946	283	207	184	*202*	.	308	.	.	*236*	199
1947	378	245	210	*227*	.	348	.	.	*309*	258
1947 : Nov.	402	253	212	*224*	.	354	.	.	*326*	305
Dec.	403	253	212	*219*	.	353	.	.	*319*	311
1948 : Jan.	407	260	215	*226*	.	355	.	.	*332*	326
Feb.	416	265	215	*231*	.	361	.	.	*332*	328
Mar.	425	282	214	*226*	.	362	.	.	*385*	331
April	432	.	214	*227*	.	363	.	.	...	331
May	433	285	212	*228*	.	364	.	.	...	332
June	437	291	214	*225*	.	364	.	.	...	334
July	447	293	...	*228*	.	373	.	.	...	336
Aug.	...	291	...	...	.	379	.	.	...	341
Sept.	...	...	...	...	.	376	.	.	...	342
Oct.	...	...	...	...	.	377	.	.	...	346
Nov.	...	...	...	...	.	...	.	.	...	...
Food										
1937	100	100	100	.	100	100	100	.	.	100
1938	105	114	99	.	.	115	151	.	100	98
1939	103	121	96	.	92	115	224	.	*106*	92
1940	120	115	91	.	91	112	274	100	*108*	101
1941	137	111	95	100[1]	87	115	269	.	*125*	115
1942	179	123	119	*117*	.	131	363	*153*	*137*	129
1943	212	145	149	*142*	111	168	478	*156*	*167*	143
1944	227	184	160	*175*	130	217	813	*159*	*172*	163
1945	242	207	181	*183*	163	234	954	*163*	*188*	182
1946	281	222	187	*210*	193	303	772	*175*	*223*	196
1947	377	266	219	*253*	196	348	834	*194*	*281*	271
1947 : Nov.	404	271	220	*246*	199	356	855	*201*	*286*	345
Dec.	401	271	220	*236*	198	355	832	*196*	*286*	353
1948 : Jan.	407	276	223	*250*	202	356	859	*191*	*306*	355
Feb.	412	283	224	*254*	208	359	873	*193*	*306*	357
Mar.	418	309	223	*246*	210	359	819	*192*	...	358
April	422	.	223	*244*	208	360	...	*193*	...	358
May	422	310	222	*246*	216	361	...	*195*	...	358
June	430	319	223	*242*	215	361	...	*206*	...	359
July	445	320	...	*247*	218	373	...	*206*	...	360
Aug.	...	...	...	...	...	377	...	*203*	...	363
Sept.	...	...	...	...	...	373	...	*203*	...	365
Oct.	...	...	...	...	...	373	...	*202*	...	372
Nov.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Composition of the indices: *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Nov.

INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*
(Base: 1937 = 100)

Country	America *(concl.)*			Asia						
	Puerto Rico	Uruguay	Venezuela	Burma	Ceylon	China		Cyprus	India	
Town or no. of localities	6	Montevideo	Caracas	Rangoon	Colombo	Chungking	Shanghai	5	Ahmedabad	Bombay
Original base (= 100)	Mar. 1941	1929	1933	1941	Nov. 1942	Jan.-June 1937		Aug. 1939	Aug. 1928-July 1927	July 1935-June 1936
Cost of living										
Composition of the index	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e* [1]	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*
1937	.	100	.	100	.	100	100	.	100	100
1938	.	99	.	99	.	115	129	.	93	100
1939	.	105	.	97	*59*[2]	189	172	100[3]	96	100
1940	.	110	.	107	*61*	542	360[4]	.	104	106
1941	100[5]	109	.	122	*67*	1 814	.	.	114	117
1942	*135*[6]	112	.	.	100[7]	4 078	.	*220*	150	148
1943	*140*	118	.	.	*107*	11 339	.	*254*	271	218
1944	*143*	121	.	.	*109*	38 554	.	*235*	278	224
1945	*146*	139	.	.	*121*	141 821	24 978	*232*	261	222
1946	*159*	153	.	381[8 9]	*125*	255 041	337 601	*245*	275	244
1947	*180*	177	.	388	*137*	1 565 385	3 078 307	*269*[4]	289	263
1947 : Nov.	*181*	179	.	369	*136*	3 173 000	5 866 000	.	304	271
Dec.	*183*	178	.	371	*137*	4 347 000	7 444 000	.	287	269
1948 : Jan.	*183*	180	.	356	*137*	5 932 000	11 293 000	.	279	256
Feb.	*182*	177	.	344	*142*	7 651 000	16 308 000	*330*	282	260
Mar.	*180*	177	.	340	*142*	12 816 000	18 806 000	*327*	286	268
April	*180*	176	.	338	*144*	15 691 000	20 931 000	*327*	297	275
May	*179*	175	.	344	*143*	20 315 000	29 970 000	*332*	314	275
June	*178*	174	.	359	*143*	41 266 000	57 447 000	*333*	322	290
July	*179*	177	.	361	*144*	128 302 000	159 022 000	*344*	330	294
Aug.	*180*	...	.	378	*143*	165 460 000	317 152 000	*336*	341	303
Sept.	*178*	...	.	391	*143*	225	86	*334*	342	305
Oct.	*175*	...	.	378	*142*	...	103	*345*	...	297
Nov.	...	...	.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Food										
			[10]							
1937	.	100	100	100	.	100	100	.	100	100
1938	.	96	102	97	.	103	110	.	91	99
1939	.	102	107	95	*54*[2]	139	158	100[3]	96	100
1940	.	107	102	111	*56*	480	372[4]	.	107	110
1941	100[5]	107	101	132	*62*	2 067	.	.	116	123
1942	*145*[6]	111	111	.	100[7]	4 084	.	*224*	164	158
1943	*149*	118	122	.	*103*	11 400	.	*208*	315	221
1944	*153*	122	141	.	*102*	41 696	.	*220*	316	231
1945	*157*	146	141	.	*111*	134 042	25 560	*222*	294	238
1946	*179*	163	150	549[8]	*113*	247 682	338 894	*245*	327	278
1947	*213*	202	172	463	*126*	1 395 400	2 950 499	*264*[4]	349	302
1947 : Nov.	*216*	205	185	440	*126*	2 722 000	5 230 000	.	376	312
Dec.	*218*	204	185	442	*127*	3 758 000	6 878 000	.	345	308
1948 : Jan.	*218*	206	...	402	*127*	5 730 000	11 162 000	.	325	282
Feb.	*218*	201	...	364	*134*	7 937 000	16 088 000	*315*	301	283
Mar.	*214*	201	...	349	*134*	13 138 000	21 406 000	*304*	304	286
April	*213*	198	...	365	*136*	15 453 000	23 599 000	*306*	337	289
May	*212*	197	...	380	*138*	19 601 000	33 539 000	*319*	349	288
June	*210*	191	...	406	*137*	40 821 000	62 657 000	*321*	361	309
July	*212*	193	...	415	*139*	125 819 000	168 739 000	*323*	376	308
Aug.	*213*	...	...	440	*139*	144 517 000	347 500 000	*312*	385	320
Sept.	*210*	...	...	451	*139*	271	88	*326*	390	325
Oct.	*205*	...	...	431	*141*	...	109	*330*	...	318
Nov.	...	...	...	...	*141*	...	...	...	...	...

Composition of the indices : *a* = Food ; *b* = Fuel and light ; *c* = Clothing ; *d* = Rent ; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Until Feb. 1947, excluding heating and lighting. [2] Aug.-Dec. [3] Aug. [4] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. [5] Mar. [6] June and Dec. [7] Nov. [8] New series with base 1941 = 100, spliced by I.L.O. to old series. [9] Sept.-Dec. [10] Including soap and coal.

INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*
(Base: 1937 = 100)

Country	Asia *(cont.)*								
	Indo-China	Iran	Iraq	Japan	Lebanon	Netherlands Indies		Pakistan	Palestine [1]
Town or no. of localities	Saigon	7	Baghdad	28	Beirut	Batavia	Makassar	Lahore	3
Original base (=100)	1925	21 Mar. 1936-20 Mar. 1937	1939	Aug. 1946-Mar. 1947	June-Aug. 1939	July 1938	July 1938	1931-1935	Jan. 1942
Cost of living									
Composition of the index	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a	a	a-e	a, b, e [2]
1937	100	100	.	.	.	.	.	100	100
1938	114	114	.	.	.	.	.	87	98
1939	117	121	100	.	100 [3]	.	.	100	100
1940	136	134	.	.	*110* [4]	.	.	104	114
1941	149	184	.	.	.	.	.	116	136
1942	191	326	.	.	*287* [5]	.	.	164	185
1943	251	787	.	.	*441* [5]	.	.	271	224
1944	384	916	.	.	*560* [5]	.	.	270	233
1945	.	779	*584*	.	*607*	.	.	278	247
1946	1 825 [6] [7]	698	*567*	100 [8]	*553*	.	.	292	256
1947	2 921	...	*601*	*191*	*500*	.	.	...	...
1947: Nov.	3 226	...	*722*	*250*	*502*	.	.	...	270
Dec.	3 264	...	*715*	*282*	*501*	.	.	...	...
1948: Jan.	3 364	...	...	*286*	*496*	.	.	...	...
Feb.	3 457	...	...	*302*	*507*	.	.	...	...
Mar.	3 549	...	...	*310*	*505*	.	.	...	...
April	3 614	...	...	*322*	*504*	.	.	...	...
May	3 934	...	...	*329*	*491*	.	.	...	...
June	3 834	...	...	*344*	*491*	.	.	...	...
July	3 955	762	...	*395*	*489*	.	.	...	...
Aug.	4 052	755	...	*420*	*485*	.	.	...	...
Sept.	...	...	...	...	...	.	.	...	...
Oct.	...	...	...	...	...	.	.	...	...
Nov.	...	...	...	...	...	.	.	...	...
Food									
1937	100	100	.	.	.	.	.	100	100 [9] 100 [10]
1938	125	112	.	.	.	100 [11]	100 [11]	84	92 98
1939	125	114	100	.	100 [3]	.	.	102	94 100
1940	147	125	.	.	*114* [4]	.	.	109	113 113
1941	149	187	.	.	.	.	.	.	159 147
1942	170	346	.	.	*436*	.	.	.	264 [12] 233 [12]
1943	210	872	.	.	*612*	.	.	287	328 290
1944	311	928	.	.	*663*	.	.	282	327 278
1945	.	774	*719*	.	*732*	.	.	283	343 295
1946	1 933 [6] [7]	696	*628*	100 [8]	*662*	.	.	310	348 301
1947	3 269	...	*689*	*182*	*604*	*2 351*	*1 682*	...	... ...
1947: Nov.	3 691	...	*861*	*220*	*631*	*1 949*	*1 324*	...	377 302
Dec.	3 723	...	*855*	*253*	*628*	*2 067*	*1 497*	...	377 335
1948: Jan.	3 882	...	...	*255*	*615*	*1 940*	*1 504*	...	427 370
Feb.	3 946	...	...	*284*	*644*	*1 660*	*1 403*	...	... ...
Mar.	3 978	...	...	*290*	*658*	*1 391*	*1 362*	...	... ...
April	4 041	...	...	*294*	*655*	*1 256*	*1 273*	...	... ...
May	4 360	...	...	*305*	*620*	*1 140*	*1 296*	...	... ...
June	4 328	...	...	*306*	*620*	*1 115*	*1 098*	...	... ...
July	4 392	...	...	*352*	*614*	*1 145*	*1 075*	...	... ...
Aug.	4 583	...	...	*365*	*603*	*1 136*	*1 036*	...	... ...
Sept.	...	...	...	...	...	*1 032*	*1 061*	...	... ...
Oct.	...	...	...	...	...	*1 135*	*1 060*	...	... ...
Nov.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	... ...

Composition of the indices: *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Office of Statistics series. [2] From 1937 to Aug. 1939, official series based on food, soap and kerosene priced in 3 Jewish markets; from Aug. 1939 to 1 Jan. 1942, new series based on all expenditure groups calculated by Jewish Agency for Palestine; from 1 Jan. 1942, new official "Wages Committee" index, covering all groups in 3 Arab and 3 Jewish markets; each series spliced to preceding series. [3] June-Aug. [4] Jan. [5] June and Dec. [6] New series with base Jan.-June 1939 = 100, spliced by I.L.O. to old series. [7] Mar.-Dec. [8] Aug. 1946-Mar. 1947. [9] Food, soap and kerosene, priced in Arab markets. [10] Food, soap and kerosene, priced in Jewish markets. [11] July: index of the free market retail prices of 19 foodstuffs, based on the consumption in 1932 of an Indonesian family with a monthly income of fl.25-fl.50. [12] From 1942, official food-group index in 3 Arab markets linked to old index. [13] From 1942, official food-group index in 3 Jewish markets linked to old index.

INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*
(Base: 1937 = 100)

Country	Asia *(concl.)*	Europe						
	Philippines	Austria [1]	Belgium [2]	Bulgaria	Czechoslovakia	Denmark	Finland	France
Town or no. of localities	Manila	Vienna	62	12 [3]	Prague	200	32	45 dep.
Original base (=100)	1941	April 1945	1936-1938	1939	July 1914	1935	1935	1930
				Cost of living				
Composition of the index	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a, b, d, e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a*
1937	100	.	100	100	100	100	100	.
1938	104	100 [4]	104	103	105	102	103	.
1939	105	.	105	106	115	104	105	.
1940	110	.	116 [5]	118	141	130	125	.
1941	112	.	.	143	165	150	148	.
1942	180	.	.	189	179	156	174	.
1943	435	.	.	240	177	158	197	.
1944	150 751	*85* [4]	.	359	178	160	209	.
1945	777	*85* [4]	.	540	188	162	292	.
1946	585	*107* [6]	333	607	341	161	467	.
1947	434	*211*	339	675	326	165	606	.
1947 : Nov.	402	*301*	355	707	316	.	715	.
Dec.	417	*303*	360	710	319	.	748	.
1948 : Jan.	439	*306*	362	...	321	167	791	.
Feb.	413	*306*	383	...	321	.	781	.
Mar.	392	*312*	389	...	324	.	790	.
April	399	*310*	392	...	325	168	793	.
May	392	*307*	394	...	325	.	793	.
June	397	*306*	393	...	328	.	802	.
July	...	*303*	392	...	324	170	839	.
Aug.	...	*203*	396	...	316	.	847	.
Sept.	...	*301*	399	...	315	.	843	.
Oct.	...	...	392	...	320	170	...	.
Nov.	...	...	390	...	323	.	...	.
				Food				
1937	100	.	.	100	100	100	100	100
1938	104	100 [4]	.	108	103	104	101	115
1939	107	.	.	110	114	106	105	124 [7]
1940	112	.	.	124	137	129	128	155
1941	113	.	.	156	151	157	151	186
1942	213	.	.	219	155	162	177	217
1943	563	.	.	294	154	161	197	266
1944	255 459	*84* [4]	.	464	155	162	200	338
1945	945	*85* [4]	.	703	160	163	312	465
1946	727	*108* [6]	.	798	342	163	491	830
1947	470	*204*	*305* [8]	908	317	170	719	1 333
1947 : Nov.	426	*288*	*339*	945	311	.	884	1 775
Dec.	448	*292*	*347*	947	316	.	929	.
1948 : Jan.	485	*294*	*347*	...	321	172	969	.
Feb.	444	*294*	*350*	...	320	.	934	1 982
Mar.	409	*306*	*383*	...	321	.	925	.
April	424	*301*	*387*	...	324	171	911	.
May	408	*300*	*389*	...	324	.	900	2 001
June	419	*303*	*387*	...	331	.	912	.
July	...	*298*	*386*	...	321	174	919	.
Aug.	...	*298*	*393*	...	306	.	928	...
Sept.	...	*295*	*399*	...	304	.	914	.
Oct.	...	...	*387*	...	301	173	...	.
Nov.	...	...	*386*	...	307	.	...	...

Composition of the indices: *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] The monetary equivalence used formerly of 1 RM. (1938) = 1 Sch. (1948) has been replaced by 1 Sch. (1938) = 1 Sch. (1948). [2] Retail price index. [3] Including Sofia. [4] Apr.; official prices; index based on normal consumption of family consisting of man, wife and 2 children. [5] Jan.-Apr. [6] Apr.-Dec. [7] New index (base 1938 = 100); weighted average of retail prices of 29 articles of food in cities of over 10,000 population, spliced by I.L.O. to old series. [8] Retail food price index, base 1936-38 = 100.

INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*
(Base : 1937 = 100)

Country	Europe *(cont.)*							
	Germany			Greece	Hungary	Iceland	Ireland	Italy
Town or no. of localities	British Zone	French Zone	U.S. Zone	Athens	Budapest	Reykjavik	120	62 [1]
Original base (=100)	1938			1938	Aug. 1939	Jan.-Mar. 1939	July 1914	1938
Cost of living								
Composition of the index	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*
1937	.	.	.	**100**	**100**	.	**100**	**100**
1938	**100**	**100**	**100**	101	101	.	102	108
1939	.	.	.	100	99	**100** [2]	105	112
1940	.	.	.	111	107	*128*	121	131
1941	.	.	.	.	127	*160*	133	152
1942	.	.	.	.	148	*206*	147	175
1943	.	.	.	.	177	*256*	166	294
1944	.	.	.	.	219	*268*	174	1 307
1945	*112* [3]	*111* [3]	*112* [3]	1 909	.	*277*	173	2 723
1946	*125* [4]	*125* [4]	*126* [4]	14 624	359 [5]	*293*	171	3 039
1947	*126*	*122*	*126*	17 585	436	*315*	181 [6]	4 925
1947 : Nov.	*125*	*122*	*126*	20 547	519	*326*	182	5 473
Dec.	*125*	*122*	*126*	21 775	496	*328*	.	5 306
1948 : Jan.	*125*	*122*	*127*	23 068	487	*319*	.	5 212
Feb.	*126*	*122*	*127*	24 344	502	*319*	186	5 157
Mar.	*126*	*122*	*128*	24 633	504	*320*	.	5 295
April	*128*	...	*129*	23 906	495	*323*	.	5 314
May	*130*	...	*131*	24 915 [7]	499	*320*	188	5 246
June	*134*	...	...	24 519	450	*319*	.	5 204
July	*138*	...	...	24 579	424	*320*	.	4 953
Aug.	...	...	...	25 221	414	*321*	186	5 118
Sept.	...	...	...	...	377	*322*	.	5 285
Oct.	...	...	...	...	...	*324*	.	5 208
Nov.	...	...	...	...	...	*325*	...	...
Food								
1937	.	.	.	**100**	**100**	.	**100**	.
1938	**100**	**100**	**100**	97	102	.	102	**100**
1939	.	.	.	95	99	**100** [2]	104	.
1940	.	.	.	107	112	*137*	117	.
1941	.	.	.	.	141	*189*	129	.
1942	.	.	.	.	163	*264*	143	.
1943	.	.	.	.	205	*330*	159	.
1944	.	.	.	.	243	*334*	168	.
1945	*112* [3]	*110* [3]	*106* [3]	1 764	.	*342*	169	.
1946	*117* [4]	*120* [4]	*118* [4]	15 776	520 [5]	*361*	169	*3 586*
1947	*118*	*117*	*122*	19 511	701	*373*	188 [6]	*5 834*
1947 : Nov.	*114*	*116*	*120*	23 965	901	*379*	185	*6 448*
Dec.	*114*	*116*	*121*	25 749	838	*382*	.	*6 196*
1948 : Jan.	*115*	*116*	*121*	27 689	818	*360*	.	*6 068*
Feb.	*116*	*116*	*123*	29 459	850	*360*	187	*6 008*
Mar.	*117*	*117*	*125*	29 845	855	*360*	.	*6 206*
April	*118*	...	*128*	27 775	831	*355*	.	*6 254*
May	*124*	...	*132*	29 668	839	*356*	192	*6 162*
June	*132*	...	...	28 576	717	*356*	.	*6 111*
July	*140*	...	...	28 224	654	*359*	.	*5 747*
Aug.	...	...	...	29 596	628	*359*	188	*6 004*
Sept.	...	...	...	...	537	*365*	.	*6 162*
Oct.	...	...	...	...	...	*365*	.	*6 041*
Nov.	...	...	...	...	...	*364*	...	...

Composition of the indices : *a* = Food ; *b* = Fuel and light ; *c* = Clothing ; *d* = Rent ; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Cities of over 50,000 inhabitants. [2] Jan.-Mar. [3] Oct. [4] July-Dec. [5] Aug.-Dec. [6] From Aug. 1946 : interim index ; composition *a-d*, spliced by I.L.O. to old series.

INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING AND FOOD PRICES *(cont.)*
(Base: 1937 = 100)

Country	Europe *(cont.)*								
	Luxembourg	Netherlands		Norway	Poland	Portugal	Rumania	Spain	Sweden
Town or no. of localities	9	Amsterdam	6	31	Warsaw	Lisbon	Bucharest	50	60
Original base (=100)	1914	9 Dec. 1938-3 June 1939	1938-1939	1938	1937	July 1938-June 1939	1933	July 1936	1935
Cost of living									
Composition of the index	*a-c, e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-b*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*
1937	100	.	100	100	100	.	100	.	100
1938	103	.	101	103	.	100	105	.	102
1939	102	100[1]	102	105	.	*101*[1]	112	*154*[1 2]	104
1940	111[1]	.	117	122	.	*111*	152	*178*	116
1941	.	.	134	143	.	*122*	218	*232*	133
1942	.	.	143	152	.	*138*	321	*247*	143
1943	.	.	149	155	.	*154*	434	*246*	146
1944	173[1]	.	153[1]	157	.	*172*	651	*257*	145
1945	215	.	176[3]	160	7 749[1]	*188*	3 852	*275*	145
1946	272	*208*[1]	192[1]	164	9 251	*208*	23 700	*361*	146
1947	284	*203*	199	165	12 253	*211*	...	*424*	150
1947 : Nov.	294	.	198	162	12 550	*208*	.	*442*	.
Dec.	295	.	202	163	12 880	*208*	.	*445*	152
1948 : Jan.	298	.	202	163	13 010	*211*	.	*449*	.
Feb.	300	.	202	164	13 130	*204*	.	*453*	.
Mar.	300	...	203	165	13 200	*196*	.	*456*	157
April	300	.	204	166	12 870	*196*	.	*458*	.
May	300	.	203	166	12 920	*193*	.	*451*	.
June	301	...	207	164	12 960	*200*	.	*447*	158
July	304	.	207	165	13 030	*202*	.	*444*	.
Aug.	306	.	203	163	12 970	*209*	.	*447*	.
Sept.	305	...	...	163	13 040	*211*	.	...	160
Oct.	302	.	...	162	...	*213*	.	...	.
Nov.	...	.	...	...	...	*215*	.	...	.
Food									
1937	100	.	100	100	100	.	100	.	100
1938	104	.	102	104	.	100	107	.	103
1939	103	100[1]	103	106	.	*101*[1]	115	*178*[1 2]	106
1940	111[1]	.	121	127	.	*111*	164	*215*	119
1941	.	.	145	152	.	*124*	272	*300*	137
1942	.	.	159	158	.	*141*	416	*318*	149
1943	.	.	161	160	.	*154*	578	*310*	149
1944	173[1]	.	166[1]	161	.	*173*	875	*323*	147
1945	209	.	170[3]	163	11 198[1]	*192*	6 418	*347*	146
1946	254	*224*[1]	195[1]	163	12 990	*217*	41 729	*491*	148
1947	271	*218*	213	162	16 155	*220*	...	*581*	156
1947 : Nov.	284	.	212	158	16 340	*217*	.	*600*	159
Dec.	284	*217*	223	158	17 090	*216*	.	*602*	159
1948 : Jan.	285	.	223	159	17 040	*220*	.	*605*	167
Feb.	287	.	223	160	17 100	*212*	.	*609*	167
Mar.	286	...	225	160	17 180	*203*	.	*613*	167
April	286	.	227	162	16 630	*203*	.	*613*	166
May	284	.	227	162	16 710	*199*	.	*598*	167
June	286	...	234	159	16 610	*203*	.	*589*	168
July	...	.	233	159	17 120	*205*	.	*581*	168
Aug.	...	.	224	156	16 960	*214*	.	*584*	168
Sept.	...	...	...	154	17 340	*215*	.	...	171
Oct.	...	.	...	153	...	*217*	.	...	170
Nov.	...	.	...	...	...	*219*	.	...	...

Composition of the indices: *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. [2] July 1936 = 100. [3] Sept. and Dec.

INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING AND FOOD PRICES *(concl.)*
(Base: 1937 = 100)

Country	Europe *(concl.)*			Oceania			
	Switzerland	Turkey	United Kingdom	Australia	Fiji	Hawaii	New Zealand
Town or no. of localities	34	Istanbul	504-24	30	Suva	Honolulu	25-4
Original base (=100)	June 1914	1938	July 1914	1923-1927	Aug. 1939	Mar. 1943	1926-1930
Cost of living							
Composition of the index	*a-d*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*
1937	100	100	100	100	.	.	100
1938	100	100	101	103	.	.	103
1939	101	101	103	105	100[1]	.	107
1940	110	112	119	110	.	.	112
1941	127	138	129	115	.	.	116
1942	141	232	130	125	.	.	120
1943	149	346	129	129	.	100[2]	123[3]
1944	152	338	130	129	*172*	*102*	123
1945	153	353	132	129	*167*	*104*	123
1946	152	341	132	131	*169*	*113*	123
1947	159	343	100[4]	136	*191*	*128*	127
1947: Nov.	163	341	*103*	140[5]	.	.	.
Dec.	163	340	*104*	.	.	*131*	133
1948: Jan.	164	340	*104*	.	*204*	.	.
Feb.	163	338	*106*	143[5]	.	.	.
Mar.	163	341	*106*	.	.	*132*	135
April	163	344	*108*	.	*210*	.	.
May	163	345	*108*	146[5]	.	.	.
June	164	342	*110*	.	.	*132*	136
July	163	...	*108*	.	...	.	.
Aug.	163	...	*108*	150[5]	.	.	.
Sept.	163	...	*108*	.	.	*136*	...
Oct.	163	...	*108*	.	...	.	.
Nov.	...	...	...	...	.	.	.
Food							
1937	100	100	100	100	.	.	100
1938	100	98	101	104	.	.	104
1939	102	98	101	109	100[1]	.	110
1940	113	111	118	110	.	.	113
1941	135	141	121	111	.	.	115
1942	155	275	116	121	.	.	118
1943	163	449	119	122	.	100[2]	.
1944	166	399	121	120	*157*	*100*	.
1945	166	407	122	121	*154*	*101*	.
1946	162	405	122	122	*157*	*117*	.
1947	171	400	100[4]	129	*185*	*141*[7]	.
1947: Nov.	177	395	*103*	133	.	*145*	.
Dec.	178	397	*103*	137	.	*144*	.
1948: Jan.	178	399	*104*	138	*197*	*145*	.
Feb.	178	397	*108*	141	.	*145*	.
Mar.	177	405	*109*	141	.	*146*	.
April	177	407	*109*	142	*204*	*144*	.
May	176	412	*108*	144	.	*144*	.
June	177	407	*113*	147	.	*143*	.
July	176	...	*108*	149	...	*147*	.
Aug.	176	...	*108*	149	.	*149*	.
Sept.	176	...	*107*	151	.	*151*	.
Oct.	177	...	*108*	154	...	*156*	.
Nov.	...	...	...	...	.	*157*	.

Composition of the indices: *a* = Food; *b* = Fuel and light; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Aug. [2] Mar. [3] New special wartime price index with base Dec. 1942 = 100, spliced by I.L.O. to old retail price series. [4] Interim index: 200 cities; 17 June 1947 = 100. [5] Quarterly averages. [6] Including heating. [7] Average of 8 months.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Date	Africa	America					
	Nigeria [1]	Canada				United States	
	V	II		I		II	
	Applicants for work registered	Unemployed (estimated)		Unemployed (insured)		Unemployed (estimated) [2]	
			%		%		%
1937	.	337 000	12.5	.	.	7 700 000	14.3
1938	.	407 000	15.[illegible]	.	.	10 390 000	19.0
1939	.	386 000 [3]	14.1 [3]	.	.	9 480 000	17.2
1940	.	281 700 [3]	10.1 [3]	.	.	8 120 000 [4]	14.6 [4]
1941	.	370 000 [5]	8.0 [5]	.	.	5 560 000	9.9
1942	.	238 000	5.3	.	.	2 660 000	4.7
1943	.	99 000	2.2	.	.	1 070 000	1.9
1944	7 272	82 000	1.8	10 454	0.5	670 000	1.2
1945	7 562	172 000 [6]	3.8 [6]	41 139	1.9	1 040 000	1.9
1946	7 264	143 000	3.0	96 760	4.5	2 270 000	3.9
1947	6 874	98 000	2.0	68 254	3.0	2 142 000	3.6
1947 : Nov.	5 959	87 000	1.8	59 555	2.6	1 621 000	2.7
Dec.	5 635	.	.	94 525	4.1	1 643 000	2.8
1948 : Jan.	6 203	.	.	130 798	5.6	2 065 000	3.5
Feb.	6 962	156 000	3.2	146 074	6.2	2 639 000	4.4
Mar.	6 806	.	.	136 356	5.8	2 440 000	4.1
April	6 735	.	.	105 441	4.5	2 193 000	3.6
May	6 250	.	.	70 993	3.0	1 761 000	2.9
June	5 776	82 000	1.6	56 509	2.4	2 184 000	3.6
July	5 737	.	.	48 546	2.1	2 227 000	3.5
Aug.	6 245	.	.	44 273	1.9	1 941 000	3.1
Sept.	6 689	67 000	1.3	44 761	1.9	1 899 000	3.1
Oct.	...	.	.	55 384	2.4	1 642 000	2.7
Nov.	...	.	.	...	...	1 831 000	3.0
Persons cov. (thousands)	.	4 908 [7]		2 340* [8]		60 168 [7]	

Date	America *(concl.)*		Asia				
	Puerto Rico		India	Japan		Palestine	
	II		V	VI		V [9]	
	Unemployed (estimated)		Applicants for work registered	Unemployed (estimated)		Unemployed	
						Wholly [10]	Partially [11]
		%			%		
1937	.	.	.	295 443	3.7	.	.
1938	.	.	.	237 371	3.0	.	.
1939	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
1940	.	.	.	.	.	10 815	13 976
1941	.	.	.	.	.	5 495	9 882
1942	.	.	.	.	.	1 401	4 514
1943	.	.	.	.	.	358 [12]	3 233 [12]
1944	.	.	.	.	.	477	3 822
1945	.	.	.	.	.	382	4 035
1946	80 000 [13]	12.0 [13]	.	1 590 318 [14]	5.4 [14]	608	5 983
1947	76 000	11.0	.	...	...	...	...
1947 : Nov.	78 000	11.4	226 086	320 000 [15]	0.9 [15]	...	...
Dec.	89 000	12.8	236 734	440 000	1.3	...	...
1948 : Jan.	94 000	13.8	233 568	470 000	1.4	...	...
Feb.	74 000	10.6	216 551	360 000	2.0	...	...
Mar.	52 000	7.6	211 540	250 000	0.7	...	...
April	60 000	8.7	212 869	230 000	0.7	...	...
May	57 000	8.3	210 302	180 000	0 5	...	...
June	62 000	8.9	219 714	160 000	0.4	...	...
July	72 000	10.4	...	160 000	0.4	...	...
Aug.	75 000	11.0	...	...	...	...	...
Sept.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Oct.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nov.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	688 [7]		.	35 250 [16]		.	

I. Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics.
II. Labour force sample surveys.
III. Trade union fund returns.
IV. Trade union returns.
V. Employment office statistics.
VI. Official estimates.

[1] Lagos. [2] Since Sept. 1939, including previously unemployed wage earners who enlisted. [3] Jan.-Oct. [4] Commencing 1940, estimates obtained from monthly sample surveys of the labour force. [5] Estimates of beginning of June of each year between 1941 and 1944 adapted from census and other data. [6] Nov. Commencing this date, estimates based on quarterly sample surveys of the labour force. [7] Average for 1947. [8] Apr. 1948. [9] Jewish labour only. [10] Number of persons registered as unemployed for 21 days or more during the month. [11] Number of persons registered as unemployed for less than 21 days during the month. [12] Apr.-Dec. [13] Mar.-Dec. [14] Apr.; estimates based on a census. [15] Since Oct. 1947 figures derived from monthly sample surveys of the labour force. [16] Oct. 1947.

Date	Europe								
	Austria	Belgium		Denmark		Finland	France	
	V	I		III		V	[1]	V
	Unemployed (registered)	Unemployed (insured) [2]		Unemployed (trade unionists)		Applicants for work registered	Unemployed (on relief)	Applications for work registered
			%		%			
1937	320 961	126 535	.	95 103	21.9	3 695	354 554	379 994
1938	244 788 [3]	174 003	.	97 136	21.4	3 602	373 641	402 186
1939	66 000	195 211	.	88 924	18.4	3 300	381 902 [4]	418 413 [4]
1940	.	.	.	119 593	23.9	3 955	.	.
1941	.	.	.	43 476 [5]	8.0 [5]	3 384	292 649	394 534
1942	.	.	.	48 968	9.1	1 561	70 312	123 957
1943	.	.	.	34 272	6.3	923	19 878	41 552
1944	.	.	.	25 411	4.6	2 018	.	.
1945	.	144 579 [6]	.	46 661	8.2	3 240	15 813	68 436
1946	74 105	67 192	.	27 577	4.7	3 454	15 663	56 633
1947	52 839	67 724	3.1 [7]	28 796	4.9	4 199	7 389	45 738
1947 : Nov.	40 060	61 108	3.2	20 794	3.6	4 944	6 280	57 733
Dec.	40 450	97 271	5.2	37 569	6.4	2 837	7 618	58 268
1948 : Jan.	50 093	105 290	5.6	65 553	11.2	5 398	9 339	74 004
Feb.	48 399	135 724	7.2	64 545	11.0	6 547	11 369	74 610
Mar.	46 687	95 451	5.1	27 689	4.7	5 582	12 386	68 184
April	45 899	94 679	5.0	15 236	2.6	7 234	11 964	70 505
May	47 355	94 045	5.0	8 197	1.4	6 644	13 399	71 302
June	48 989	104 717	5.6	7 565	1.3	3 608	14 609	72 963
July	51 700*	129 274	6.9	7 917	1.3	3 906	16 659	71 198
Aug.	...	122 549	6.5	8 894	1.5	4 107	...	...
Sept.	...	124 233	6.6	10 943	1.8	4 653	...	...
Oct.	...	132 367	...	18 809	3.1	...	...	...
Nov.	...	...	...	24 864*	4.1*	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	.	1 880 [8]		582 [8]		.	.	.

Date	Europe *(cont.)*						
	Germany [11]						Hungary
	All zones [10]	British zone	French zone	Soviet zone	U.S. zone		V
	Unemployed (registered)						Applications for work registered
		%					
1937	.	.	.	.	.	.	15 224
1938	.	.	.	.	.	.	17 796
1939	.	.	.	.	.	.	16 906
1940	.	.	.	.	.	.	11 437
1941	.	.	.	.	.	.	10 667
1942	.	.	.	.	.	.	8 651
1943	.	.	.	.	.	.	4 734
1944	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
1945	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
1946	1 361 000	5.2	334 400	45 000	258 000	485 800	22 266
1947	1 047 000 [12]	3.6 [12]	273 100 [13]	21 600	...	358 100 [13]	79 554
1947 : Nov.	.	.	209 600	.	.	247 200	97 791
Dec.	973 000 [12]	3.3 [12]	212 200	14 400	...	248 200	103 687
1948 : Jan.	.	.	217 700	.	.	257 200	110 189
Feb.	.	.	216 300	.	.	250 900	114 122
Mar.	...	...	216 600	17 300	...	245 900	117 004
April	.	.	224 100	.	.	236 400	117 054
May	.	.	213 600	.	.	225 400	116 068
June	...	...	217 100	16 800	...	239 200	118 525
July	.	.	335 000	23 600	.	342 600	89 545
Aug.	.	.	391 000	25 600	.	...	74 175
Sept.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Oct.	.	.	...	...	.	...	...
Nov.	.	.	...	...	.	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	28 701 [9]		.	.	.	.	.

I. Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics.
II. Labour force sample surveys.
III. Trade union fund returns.
IV. Trade union returns.
V. Employment office statistics.
VI. Official estimates.

[1] Public relief fund statistics. [2] Daily average of registered unemployed during the month. [3] Before Apr. 1938, applicants for work registered. [4] Jan.-Aug. [5] New series of insured workers unemployed for more than one week ; July-Dec. [6] Before Oct. 1944, voluntary unemployment insurance statistics. [7] Mar.-Dec. [8] Dec. 1946. [9] Average for 1947. [10] Including Berlin. [11] Labour registration statistics. [12] Figures for Dec. exclude the Saar territory. [13] Commencing 1947, figures for Land Bremen, previously included in British zone, are shown in U.S. zone.

Date	Europe *(cont.)*						
	Ireland			Italy	Netherlands	Norway	
	I		V	V	V	V	
	Unemployed (insured)		Applicants for work registered	Unemployed (registered)	Wholly unemployed	Unemployed (registered)	
		%					%
1937	.	.	82 425	.	324 000	29 881	.
1938	.	.	88 714	.	303 400	30 296	.
1939	55 165	15.6	93 074	.	235 600	28 251	.
1940	54 677	15.5	84 054	.	197 886	29 099	.
1941	50 967	14.6	74 656	.	117 814	19 181 [1]	2.7 [1]
1942	48 846	14.2	76 887	.	74 600	4 747	0.7
1943	41 194	12.5	66 884 [2]	.	20 364	437	0.1
1944	36 263	11.3	59 047	.	.	—	—
1945	33 964	10.6	58 999	.	.	9 172 [3]	1.6 [3]
1946	35 067	10.6	59 726	1 654 872 [4]	53 079	12 246	2.0
1947	33 266	9.3	55 623	2 025 140 [r]	30 701	8 514	1.2
1947 : Nov.	30 526	8.6	62 236	1 852 401	24 554	8 201	1.1
Dec.	31 392	8.8	63 546	1 778 820 [r]	30 552	12 057	1.7
1948 : Jan.	38 136	10.7	73 910	1 956 263	36 674	16 247	2.4
Feb.	40 726	11.4	79 927	2 132 867	35 983	16 358	2.4
Mar.	40 829	11.5	79 913	2 252 761	26 763	15 647	2.3
April	38 405	10.8	74 323	2 390 865	26 442	9 810	1.4
May	36 569	10.3	69 720	2 421 973	22 384	6 219	0.9
June	32 202	8.6	45 838	2 283 600	21 169	3 278	0.4
July	32 121	8.6	45 429	...	22 036	2 541	0.3
Aug.	32 034	8.5	45 221	...	24 785	...	...
Sept.	30 418	8.1	43 983	...	25 898	...	...
Oct.	31 802	8.5	46 424	...	...	...	...
Nov.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	356 [5]		.	.	.	.	

Date	Europe *(cont.)*						
	Poland	Portugal	Spain	Sweden		Switzerland	
	V	V	V	IV		I	V
	Unemployed (registered)	Unemployed (registered)	Unemployed	Unemployed (trade unionists)		Unemployed (insured)	Wholly unemployed
					%	%	
1937	375 088	17 158 [6]	.	67 351	10.8	10.0	57 949
1938	347 509	16 570 [6]	.	66 990	10.9	8.6	52 590
1939	.	17 885 [6]	.	63 722 [7]	9.2 [7]	6.5	36 663
1940	.	15 422 [6]	474 808	84 617	11.8	3.1	14 784
1941	.	13 626 [6]	450 014	85 018	11.3	2.0	9 095
1942	.	10 185 [6]	294 530	56 938	7.5	1.9	8 841
1943	.	4 968 [6]	225 493	43 950	5.7	1.4	6 058
1944	.	3 588 [6]	169 525	39 123	4.9	1.6	6 533
1945	.	3 130	147 946	36 272	4.5	1.6	6 474
1946	79 093	2 387	178 165	27 554	3.2	1.0	4 262
1947	69 419	1 799	138 771	24 362	2.8	0.8	3 473
1947 : Nov.	65 278	1 604	123 516	21 520	2.4	0.2	1 800
Dec.	60 229	1 620	122 673	39 764	4.5	1.4	5 031
1948 : Jan.	80 034	1 605	119 769	38 052	4.4	1.2	4 858
Feb.	87 096	1 603	116 755	37 555	4.2	1.0	6 260
Mar.	82 491	1 578	114 921	34 781	3.8	0.3	1 107
April	81 800 [8]	1 600	111 685	21 358	2.3	0.1	967
May	74 200 [8]	1 547	112 254	15 704	1.7	0.1	887
June	...	1 536	105 870	17 627 [r]	1.9	0.2	1 001
July	...	1 474	104 115	14 965	1.7	0.2	1 061
Aug.	...	1 412	110 215	15 168	1.6	0.2	1 229
Sept.	...	1 362	115 173	...	...	0.2	1 464
Oct.	...	...	...	...	...	0.3	2 157
Nov.	...	...	...	...	...	...	3 807
Persons cov. (thousands)	.	.	.	876 [9]		548 [9]	.

I. Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics.
II. Labour force sample surveys.
III. Trade union fund returns.
IV. Trade union returns.
V. Employment office statistics.
VI. Official estimates.

[1] Up to 1940, applicants. Introduction of an unemployment insurance scheme in 1941; figures for the war years are incomplete. [2] Since Jan. 1943, middle of month. [3] Since Jan. 1945, Finnmark and evacuated communes in Troms excluded. [4] Figures for 1946 appear to be understated and those for 1947 overstated. [5] Oct. 1947. [6] Dec. [7] Since Jan. 1939, including agricultural workers. [8] Average for 1947.

Date	Europe *(concl.)*				Oceania				
	United Kingdom				Australia			New Zealand	
	I/V				IV	VI [1]		I	V
	Unemployed (insured)				Unemployed	Unemployed (estimated)		Unemployed [2]	Unemployed (registered)
	Wholly [3]		Temporarily						
		%		%	%		%		
1937	1 324 027 [4]	8.5	205 063	1.5	9.3	.	.	.	.
1938	1 487 363	9.5	380 332	2.5	8.7	.	.	.	.
1939	1 259 559	8.0	220 765	1.5	9.7	298 000	9.8	6 264 [5]	.
1940	752 966 [6]	5.0	165 088	1.0	8.0	.	.	4 352	.
1941	237 827 [7]	1.5	61 446	0.5	3.7	100 000	3.5	2 031	.
1942	110 628	1.0	8 489	—	1.6	33 500	1.3	810	.
1943	82 758	0.5	2 780	—	1.1	25 800	1.0	405	.
1944	75 613	0.5	2 316	—	1.2	.	.	329	.
1945	158 046	1.0	1 931	—	1.2	56 100	2.1	270	.
1946	390 106	2.5	4 058	—	1.4	134 000	4.3	172	386
1947	342 295	2.0	156 028	1.0	1.2	33 800	1.0	47	92
1947 : Nov.	286 791	2.0	6 232	—	0.9	.	.	27	44
Dec.	299 411	2.0	7 796	—	.	...	...	27	41
1948 : Jan.	341 637	2.0	8 854	—	.	.	.	14	32
Feb.	339 907	2.0	8 128	—	0.9	.	.	9	32
Mar.	321 058	2.0	7 383	—	.	.	.	16	31
April	319 646	2.0	8 080	—	.	.	.	16	43
May	306 680	2.0	9 196	—	0.9	.	.	22	119
June	288 866	2.0	10 203	—	.	...	...	41	141
July	298 345[8]	1.5[8]	9 478[8]	—	.	.	.	51	82
Aug.	315 442	1.5	9 573	—	0.9	.	.	41	68
Sept.	312 620	1.5	8 144	—	.	.	.	61	94
Oct.	331 609	1.5	7 357	—	.	.	.	48	54
Nov.	...	...	...	...	...	.	.	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	15 930 [10]				718[11]	3 251 [12]		1 320[13]	.

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT IN GENERAL [14]

Indices of numbers employed (1937 = 100)

Date	Africa		America						
	Union of South Africa		Canada		United States			Argentina (Buenos Aires)	Colombia (Central Zone)
	Europeans	Total			B.L.S. [15]	B.C. [16]			
	III (A/B)		III (A)	V	III (A/B)	V		III (A)	III (B)
	M.I.T.[9]		M.I.T.C.[9] [17]	A.M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C.	A.M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C.	I.T.C.	M.I.T.[9]
	W.S.		W.S.	W.S.[18]	W.S.	W.S.[18]		W.	W.
1937	100.0	100.0	100.0	.	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	.
1938	103.7	104.9	98.0	.	94.1	95.5	94.7	102.7	100.0[19]
1939	105.5	105.8	99.8	.	98.6	98.8	99.1	104.8	*94.2*
1940	106.4	111.3	108.9	.	104.3	102.6	104.1	102.5	*84.6*
1941	110.1	117.6	133.5	*98.1*[20]	117.7	108.7	113.1	107.1	*85.5*
1942	111.9	120.3	152.2	*98.8*	129.2	116.1	122.0	111.5	*95.2*
1943	112.6	116.0	161.3	*100.0*	136.9	117.6	124.4	116.6	*101.9*
1944	113.5	117.1	160.4	*102.7*	135.0	116.5	123.4	123.1	*123.9*
1945	116.1	121.2	153.5	100.0[21]	130.4	114.1	121.3	123.0	*128.8*
1946	121.8	124.5	151.8	*107.5*	135.1	119.3	128.6	...	*139.9*
1947	125.3	127.0	164.7	*111.2*	143.1	125.3	136.4	...	...
1947: Nov.	126.1	127.7	174.9	*112.0*	146.2	126.6	138.7	.	.
Dec.	125.8	126.4	169.8	.	148.5	125.2	139.8	.	.
1948 : Jan.	126.6	125.5[r]	165.9	.	145.2	123.4	137.3	.	.
Feb.	128.2	128.8[r]	165.6	*107.9*	144.1	123.4	138.1	.	.
Mar.	128.9	129.5[r]	163.5	.	145.2	123.8	138.4	.	.
April	129.0	129.3	163.5	.	144.2	126.0	139.5	.	.
May	129.3	129.6	168.5	.	145.3	126.7	139.3	.	.
June	129.5	129.3	173.5	*114.4*	146.5	132.4	142.3	.	.
July	129.7	128.8	176.1	.	146.8[r]	133.1	143.8	.	.
Aug.	...	...	176.0[r]	.	148.1[r]	132.3	144.7	.	.
Sept.	...	...	177.3	*116.6*	149.4	130.3	141.4	.	.
Oct.	...	...	...	.	149.6*	129.9	141.2	.	.
Nov.	...	...	...	.	...	129.4	142.4	.	.
Persons cov. (thousands)[22]	219	813	1 936 [11]	4 326	.../30 718	46 300	36 480	.	14

[1] Annual figures June of each year, except 1939 and 1941 : July. [2] Persons in receipt of unemployment benefit. [3] Including casuals. [4] Including agriculture. [5] Apr.-Dec. [6] Since July 1940, excluding men in attendance at Government training centres who were unemployed when they entered the centres. [7] From the beginning of 1941 to the end of 1947, excluding persons classified as unsuitable for ordinary employment. Since 1948, excluding only registered disabled persons requiring employment under sheltered conditions. [8] Since July 1947, slightly wider coverage under new National Insurance Act. [9] Calculated on a new basis, *viz.*, total industrial population, including self-employed persons as well as employees. [10] July 1947. [11] Average for 1947. [12] June 1947. [13] 31 Dec. 1947 ; total population over 16 years of age.

[14] For notes on the compilation of the table on Statistics of Employment in General, see above, p. 85. For description of roman numerals, see foot of table on the following page. [15] Bureau of Labor Statistics. [16] Bureau of the Census. Indices up to 1939, based on estimates prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. [17] Including logging. [18] Including other categories of workers in the labour force. [19] May. [20] Estimates of beginning of June of each year between 1941 and 1944 adapted from census and other data. [21] Nov. [22] Figure of persons covered relates to the date shown as base, unless otherwise specified.

Indices of numbers employed (1937 = 100)

Date	America *(concl.)*		Asia	Europe						
	Peru	Puerto Rico	Palestine	Austria	Czechoslovakia	France	Germany			
							All zones	Brit. zone	Fr. zone [1]	U.S. zone
	III(B)	V	III (B)	III (B)	I	III (A)	[2]			
	A.M.I.	A.M.I.T.C.	M.I.T. [3]	M.I.C.	A.M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C.	A.M.I.T.C.			
	W.	W.S. [4]	W.S.	W.S.	W.S. [4]	W.S.	W.S.			
1937	.	.	.	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	.	.	.	.
1938	.	.	**100.0** [5]	.	.	102.7	.	.	.	.
1939	**100.0**	.	*85.8*	.	.	104.0 [6]	.	.	.	.
1940	*108.0*	.	*97.4*	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
1941	*105.4*	.	*110.0*	.	.	91.7	.	.	.	.
1942	*95.6*	.	*127.2*	.	.	93.2 [7]	.	.	.	.
1943	*90.4*	.	*139.9*	.	.	97.0 [8]	.	.	.	.
1944	*86.2*	.	*136.3*	.	.	92.1	.	.	.	.
1945	*77.8*	.	*135.8*	104.9	.	93.8	.	.	.	.
1946	*74.4*	**100.0** [9]	*135.0*	99.4	104.1	100.3	**100.0** [10]	**100.0** [10]	**100.0** [10]	**100.0** [10]
1947	...	*104.6*	...	118.8	104.6	106.5	*103.2* [11]	*103.1*	*105.3*	*103.1*
1947 : Nov.	.	*104.1*	...	123.0	109.1	.	.	.	*108.4*	.
Dec.	.	*103.8*	...	124.9	106.8	.	*104.5* [11]	*105.2*	*109.0*	*108.8*
1948 : Jan.	.	*100.0*	...	123.4	103.7	...	.	.	*109.6*	.
Feb.	.	*106.7*	...	124.9	104.4	.	.	.	*110.1*	.
Mar.	.	*108.7*	...	125.3	104.2	.	...	*105.7*	*110.0*	*109.5*
April	.	*107.2*	...	126.5	106.1	...	.	.	*110.3*	.
May	.	*107.7*	...	128.3	107.9	.	.	.	...	.
June	.	*107.9*	...	129.6	108.1	.	...	*108.6*	*111.3*	*111.1*
July	.	*106.2*	...	130.4	...	...	.	.	*111.6*	.
Aug.	.	*103.8*	...	...	...	.	.	.	*112.6*	.
Sept.	.	...	...	...	...	.	...	...	...	...
Oct.	.	...	...	...	...	...	.	.	...	.
Nov.	.	...	...	...	...	.	.	.	...	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	212	585	54 [13]	266	3 164	6 800 [13]	19 602	6 597	1 100	4 528

Date	Europe *(concl.)*								Oceania	
	Hungary	Ireland	Luxembourg	Netherlands	Norway	Poland	U.S.S.R.	United [14] Kingdom	Australia	New Zealand
	I	I	III (A)	I	II [15]	I	III (A)	IV	IV	III (A)
	M.I.T.C. [6]	A.M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C. [6]	M.I.T.C. [6]	A. [6] M. [6] I.T.C.	M.I.T.C.	A. [6] M.I.T.C. [6]	M.I.T.C.	M.I.T.C. [16]	M.I.T.C.
	W.S.	W.S.	W.	W.S.	W.S.	W.S.	W.S.	W.S. [4]	W.S.	W.S.
1937	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	.	**100**	**100.0** [17]	.	.
1938	.	100.2	101.7	104.3	100.0	.	103	98.3	.	.
1939	.	100.5	99.3	108.8	105.5	.	...	101.9	**100.0** [18]	.
1940	.	97.8	.	107.3	102.7	.	113	98.9	.	.
1941	.	96.6	.	118.2	**100.0**	.	...	98.3	*112.3* [19]	.
1942	.	96.1	.	114.6	*102.3*	.	119	98.9	*111.1*	.
1943	.	95.9	.	109.6	*100.9*	.	...	96.4	*110.7*	.
1944	.	97.8	.	...	*97.6*	.	...	93.8	*110.5*	.
1945	.	100.5	.	...	*85.5* [20]	.	101	91.5	*110.8*	.
1946	83.4	106.7	88.2 [13]	117.9	*97.7*	**100.0**	111	97.5	*121.6*	.
1947	98.5	...	91.8	...	*104.7*	*118.6*	...	104.9	*131.4*	**100.0** [13]
1947 : Nov.	107.6	.	94.4	.	*106.5*	*125.5*	.	106.4	*134.4*	*102.6*
Dec.	104.5	.	95.0	.	*103.7*	*122.7*	.	106.3	*134.6*	*104.6*
1948 : Jan.	101.9	.	95.7	.	*103.2*	*121.8*	.	106.3	*134.4*	*104.2*
Feb.	103.2	.	95.8	.	*104.8*	*122.7*	.	106.5	*134.1*	*105.1*
Mar.	104.7	.	95.4	.	*104.5*	*124.6*	.	106.4	*134.9*	*104.9*
April	105.9	.	98.0	.	...	...	.	106.8	*136.3*	*104.5*
May	...	.	99.1	.	...	...	.	106.9	*136.8*	...
June	...	.	100.0	.	...	...	.	107.2	*137.2*	...
July	...	.	101.3	.	...	...	.	107.2	*137.4*	...
Aug.	...	.	...	.	...	...	.	107.5	*137.6*	...
Sept.	...	.	...	.	...	...	.	107.9	*138.1*	...
Oct.	...	.	...	.	...	...	.	...	...	...
Nov.	...	.	...	.	...	...	.	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	1 100	415	33	1 273	535 [21]	2 471	26 989	16 690	1 730	421

I. Compulsory social insurance statistics (sickness, accidents, etc.). II. Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics. III. Statistics of establishments: III (A). All establishments of a given importance; III (B). Representative sample of establishments; III (A/B). Type B series (for the recent period) linked to a type A series. IV. Estimates. V. Labour force sample surveys. A. Agriculture. M. Mines. I. Industry (manufacturing industries and construction). T. Transports. C. Commerce. W. Wage earners. S. Salaried employees.

[1] Excluding the Saar. [2] Labour registration statistics. [3] Before 1943, Government undertakings preponderantly and manufacturing. [4] Including other categories of workers in the labour force. [5] Jan. [6] Jan.-Aug. [7] Jan.-June, Sept. and Dec. [8] Annual figures, commencing 1943, averages of quarterly figures, except 1944 : Mar. and Dec.; and 1945 : Mar., June and Sept. [9] Mar. [10] Dec. [11] Figure for Dec. excludes the Saar territory. [12] Jan. 1943. [13] Jan. 1947. [14] Excluding Northern Ireland. [15] Before 1941, statistics of establishments. [16] Including forestry, fishing and trapping. [17] Annual figures : June. [18] July-Dec. [19] Finnmark and evacuated communes in Troms excluded in 1945. [20] Average for 1941.

(a) *Indices of numbers employed* (1937 = 100)

Date	Africa		America				
	Union of South Africa		Canada	United States	Argentina	Chile	Colombia (Bogotá)
	Europeans	Total					
	III (A/B) [2]		III (A)	III (A/B)	III (B) [3]	III (B)	III (B)
	W.S.		W.S.	W.	W.	W.	W.
1937	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	.
1938	101.6	103.9	97.0	85.1	104.3	105.5	100.0 [4]
1939	101.1	104.3	98.2	94.5	108.5	108.1	*90.0*
1940	99.3	106.7	114.7	101.7	111.1	117.0	*80.3*
1941	102.2	117.0	147.2	124.9	117.0	127.6	*83.1*
1942	102.6	124.5	180.5	145.6	123.6	133.7	*96.7*
1943	102.2	129.1	197.7	168.0	126.1	127.0	*105.1*
1944	103.8	137.5	196.2	163.0	131.1	125.6	*135.8*
1945	106.7	138.6	178.0	143.5	132.5	126.9	*142.6*
1946	112.8	142.5	162.8	135.5	136.9	134.8	*153.8*
1947	118.0	148.0	174.0	148.7	146.9	141.6	...
1947 : Nov.	118.7	150.1	179.3	152.0	145.9	140.7	.
Dec.	117.9	149.2	174.7	153.0	149.3	142.7	.
1948 : Jan.	118.7	149.0	175.4	151.7	147.8	119.7	.
Feb.	121.3	154.5	177.1	150.8	147.4	140.8	.
Mar.	121.8	155.7	176.6	151.5	148.7	142.2	.
April	122.1 [r]	154.5	176.4	147.6	147.5	145.0	.
May	122.7	155.4	178.0	147.0	...	140.4	.
June	122.9	156.1	181.1	149.5	...	135.3	.
July	122.8	156.1	180.5	149.9 [r]	...	...	.
Aug.	...	...	183.1 [r]	152.8 [r]	...	...	.
Sept.	...	...	183.5 *	155.5	...	...	.
Oct.	...	...	...	154.2 *	...	...	.
Nov.	...	...	...	...	...	...	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	108	270	1 046 [5]	.../8 666	.	18	4

Date	America (*concl.*)				Asia		
	Dominican Republic	Mexico		Uruguay	India (British)	Japan	Palestine
	III (A)	III (B)		III (B)	III (A)	III (A/B)	III (B)
	W.S.	W.S.	W.	W.	W.	W.	W. [6]
1937	100.0	100.0	100.0	.	100.0	100.0	.
1938	107.0	100.7	101.2	*100.4* [7]	103.7	110.1	100.0 [8]
1939	111.8	100.1	111.6	*111.9*	104.5	121.1	*82.3*
1940	120.0	102.0	115.5	*115.6*	110.1	124.8	*98.6*
1941	114.6	107.2	119.3	*120.6*	128.7	128.0	*115.1*
1942	123.5	113.3	126.6	*124.3*	136.2	141.8	*136.1*
1943	130.5	115.6	129.4	*129.6*	145.4	160.7	100.0 [8]
1944	139.3	119.7	133.9	*135.8*	150.5	181.1	*104.3*
1945	131.4	120.1	133.8	*137.5*	157.7	.	*105.8*
1946	...	123.6	139.2	*145.6*	147.0	.	*102.8*
1947	...	119.8	136.9	*149.7*	...	100.0 [9]	...
1947 : Nov.	.	.	136.4	.	.	*96.9*	...
Dec.	.	.	135.9	...	.	*99.0*	...
1948 : Jan.	.	.	...	.	.	*89.4*	...
Feb.	.	.	...	.	.	*92.6*	...
Mar.	.	.	...	...	.	*92.2*	...
April	.	.	...	.	.	*91.3*	...
May	.	.	...	.	.	*92.4*	...
June	.	.	...	...	.	*90.1*	...
July	.	.	...	.	.	*90.5*	...
Aug.	.	.	...	.	.	...	...
Sept.	.	.	...	...	.	...	...
Oct.	.	.	...	.	.	...	...
Nov.	.	.	...	.	.	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	32	113	105	56	1 676	5 760 [9]	32 [10]

I. Compulsory social insurance statistics (sickness, accidents, etc.). II. Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics. III. Statistics of establishments: III (A). All establishments of a given importance; III (B). Representative sample of establishments; III (A B). Type B series (for the recent period) linked to a type A series. IV. Estimates. W. Wage earners. S. Salaried employees.

[1] For notes on the compilation of this table, see above. p. 85. [2] Including building. [3] Including mining. [4] May. [5] Average for 1947. [6] Since Jan. 1943, including salaried employees. [7] 1936 = 100. [8] Jan. [9] Oct. 1947 = 100; indices based on a monthly sample survey covering wage earners, salaried employees and other categories of workers in the labour force. [10] Jan. 1943.

(a) *Indices of numbers employed* (1937 = 100) *(concl.)*

Date	EUROPE							
	Czecho-slovakia	Denmark	Finland	France	Germany		Hungary	Ireland
					British zone	U.S. zone		
	III (A)	III (A)	III (B)	III (A)	[1]		I	III (A/B) [2]
	W.S.	W.	W.	W.S.			W.	W.S.
1937	100.0 [3]	100.0	100.0	100.0	.	.	100.0	100.0
1938	.	100.2	102.9	103.2 [4]	.	.	108.0	100.1
1939	.	109.4	93.6	105.4	.	.	119.1	101.4
1940	.	101.6	78.7	.	.	.	124.5	100.0
1941	.	104.2	100.0 [5]	90.3	.	.	133.8	96.3
1942	.	111.0	*95.7*	96.0 [6]	.	.	.	92.6
1943	.	115.9	*96.1*	90.9 [7]	.	.	.	93.3
1944	.	116.8	*90.9*	90.9	.	.	.	95.5
1945	.	108.7	*108.2*	90.4	.	.	.	101.5
1946	85.5	121.5	*114.3*	96.8	100.0 [8]	100.0 [8]	*94.3* [9]	110.3
1947	93.8	...	*122.6*	106.0	*103.5*	*106.8*	100.0 [10]	117.7
1947 : Nov.	100.4	.	.	.	.	.	*120.0*	.
Dec.	106.9	.	.	.	*106.7*	*112.9*	*116.0*	.
1948 : Jan.	99.2	.	*126.9*	...	.	.	*112.9*	.
Feb.	99.1	.	.	.	.	.	*113.1*	.
Mar.	98.7	.	.	.	*108.6*	*116.3*	*113.6*	123.4
April	98.9	.	*130.6*	...	.	.	*114.8*	.
May	98.9	.	.	.	.	.	*114.5*	.
June	...	.	.	.	...	...	*113.8*	.
July	...	.	*130.1*	...	.	.	*114.9*	.
Aug.	...	.	.	.	.	.	*119.3*	.
Sept.	...	.	.	.	...	...	*125.7*	.
Oct.	...	.	...	...	.	.	...	.
Nov.	...	.	.	.	.	.	...	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	1 205	167	74 [11]	2 200 [10]	2 042	1 585	638 [10]/279 [10]	100

Date	EUROPE *(concl.)*						OCEANIA	
	Netherlands		Norway	Sweden	Switzerland	United [13] Kingdom	Australia	New Zealand
	I	III (B)	II [14]	III (A/B) [2]	III (B)	IV	III (A/B)	III (A)
	W.S.	W.	W.S. [2]	W.	W. [15]	W.S. [16]	W.S.	W.
1937	100.0	.	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0 [17]	100.0	100.0
1938	103.2	.	97.3	101.3	99.7	95.0	104.5	99.7
1939	109.3	.	100.2	105.2	98.3	101.7	105.7	105.8
1940	107.0	.	95.5	103.5	102.8	106.4	113.7	111.6
1941	113.2	.	100.0	102.7	107.9	110.4	129.5	116.3
1942	108.8	.	*102.4*	108.4	109.6	115.7	139.0	113.5
1943	98.3	.	*103.2*	111.7	104.9	115.6	144.0	116.7
1944	.	.	*101.2*	113.0	99.7	110.9	141.9	121.0
1945	.	*64.2* [18]	*93.5*	119.4	109.6	101.8	137.5	124.9
1946	113.1	*85.3*	*110.6*	123.9	122.9	98.3	145.0	...
1947	...	100.0	*124.1*	124.0	133.0	106.0	152.7	...
1947 : Nov.	.	.	*128.0*	124.7	.	108.4	156.0	.
Dec.	.	*105.2*	*126.9*	124.0	135.6	108.2	155.0	.
1948 : Jan.	.	.	*128.0*	123.4	.	108.6	155.1	.
Feb.	.	.	*130.7*	124.5	.	108.7	155.0	.
Mar.	.	*108.8*	*130.6*	124.7	135.6	108.5	155.2	.
April	.	.	...	125.3	.	108.5	157.5	.
May	.	.	...	124.8	.	108.3	157.9	.
June	.	*110.5*	...	.	135.6	108.2	158.6	.
July	.	.	...	123.9	.	108.1	158.7	.
Aug.	.	.	...	...	.	108.7	158.9	.
Sept.	.	...	...	...	135.6	109.1	159.3	.
Oct.	.	.	...	...	.	...	...	.
Nov.	.	.	...	...	.	...	...	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	625	335	184 [11]	536	342 [19]	6 700	519	85

I. Compulsory social insurance statistics (sickness, accidents, etc.). II. Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics. III. Statistics of establishments : III (A). All establishments of a given importance ; III (B). Representative sample of establishments ; III (A/B). Type B series (for the recent period) linked to a type A series. IV. Estimates. W. Wage earners. S. Salaried employees.

[1] Labour registration statistics. [2] Including mining. [3] 31 Dec. [4] Jan.-Aug. [5] Commencing 1941, the figures relate to an increased number of establishments. [6] Jan.-June, Sept. and Dec. [7] Annual figures, commencing 1943, averages of quarterly figures, except 1944 : Mar. and Dec., and 1945 : Mar., June and Sept. [8] Dec. [9] Since Jan. 1946, statistics of establishments, type B. [10] Jan. 1947. [11] Average for 1941. [12] Average for 1937. [13] Excluding Northern Ireland. [14] Before 1941, statistics of establishments. [15] Including building. [16] Including employers and workers on own account. [17] Annual figures: June. [18] July-Dec. [19] Average for 1947.

(b) *Indices of total hours worked* (1937 = 100)

Date	America		Asia		Europe	
	United States [1]	Argentina	Japan [1]	Palestine	Czechoslovakia	Denmark
	III (A/B)	III (B) [2]	III (A/B)	III (B) [3]	III (A)	III (B)
	W.	W.	W.	W.	W.	W.
1937	**100.0**	.	**100.0**	.	.	**100.0**
1938	78.5	.	110.4	.	.	99.4
1939	92.3	.	120.3 [4]	**100**	.	107.7
1940	100.4	.	.	*111*	.	93.8
1941	131.4	.	133.0	*142*	.	94.2
1942	161.8	.	148.3	*183*	.	101.5
1943	195.4	**100.0**	169.2	*220*	.	106.5
1944	190.9	*103.4*	198.8	*211*	.	107.7
1945	161.3	*99.1*	.	*210*	.	94.3
1946	141.9	*99.8*	.	*198*	**100.0** [5]	115.0
1947	155.2	*106.7*	.	...	*116.2*	128.9
1947 : Nov.	159.1	*106.8*	.	...	*128.5*	137.1
Dec.	163.3	*102.1*	.	...	*121.8*	137.0
1948 : Jan.	159.1	*97.1*	.	...	...	128.5
Feb.	157.0	*91.8*	.	...	...	130.9
Mar.	158.6	*108.3*	.	...	...	132.6
April	153.4	*110.6*	.	...	...	135.3
May	152.0	...	.	...	...	137.5
June	155.6	...	.	...	...	138.8
July	154.5[r]	...	.	...	...	135.9
Aug.	158.8[r]	...	.	...	...	135.7
Sept.	160.3	...	.	...	...	139.1
Oct.	159.8*	...	.	...	...	141.5
Nov.	...	...	.	...	...	...
Persons cov. (thousands)	.../8 666	.	.	7	847	.

Date	Europe *(concl.)*					
	Finland	France	Hungary	Ireland [6]	Norway	Sweden
	III (B)	III (A)	III (B)	III (A) [7]	III (A)[8]	III (A)[8]
	W.	W.S.	W.	W.	W.	W.
1937	**100.0**	**100.0**	.	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
1938	104.9	100.0	.	99.3	98.1	99.7
1939	93.7	105.9	.	101.1	100.8	104.1
1940	78.3	.	.	99.8	92.9	99.2
1941	**100.0** [9]	86.5	.	93.6	99.1	98.0
1942	*97.7*	97.5	.	88.3	97.6	104.3
1943	*99.4*	102.0 [9]	.	90.5	96.6	107.9
1944	*93.9*	97.5	.	94.0	91.6	110.0
1945	*110.1*	96.9	.	103.6	85.7	108.7 [9]
1946	*114.5*	106.7	*84.3*	115.0	...	...
1947	*123.1*	119.6	**100.0** [9]	...	...	...
1947 : Nov.	.	.	*115.7*	.	.	.
Dec.	.	.	*103.5*	.	.	.
1948 : Jan.	*131.1*	122.2	*108.4*	.	.	.
Feb.	.	.	*101.5*	.	.	.
Mar.	.	.	*100.1*	.	.	.
April	*133.7*	...	*108.4*	.	.	.
May	.	.	*99.1*	.	.	.
June	.	.	*98.5*	.	.	.
July	*129.7*	...	*101.5*	.	.	.
Aug.	.	.	*106.5*	.	.	.
Sept.	.	.	*115.3*	.	.	.
Oct.	...	...	...	.	.	.
Nov.	...	.	...	.	.	.
Persons cov. (thousands)	74 [10]	...	279	100	144	536

I. Compulsory social insurance statistics (sickness, accidents, etc.). II. Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics. III. Statistics of establishments : III (A). All establishments of a given importance ; III (B). Representative sample of establishments; III (A/B). Type B series (for the recent period) linked to a type A series. IV. Estimates. W. Wage earners. S. Salaried employees.

[1] Calculated by the I.L.O. by multiplying the index of numbers employed by the index of hours worked per worker. [2] Including mining. [3] Total number of days worked. [4] Jan.-Aug. [5] Jan. [6] Week in Oct. of each year. [7] Commencing 1941, the figures relate to an increased number of establishments. [8] Annual figures commencing 1943, averages of quarterly figures, except 1944 : Mar. and Dec. ; and 1945 : Mar., June and Sept. [9] Figure for 1945 affected by strikes in the engineering industry. [10] Average for 1941.

Methods of Computation of Statistics

Employment Statistics

Preceding issues of the *International Labour Review* have contained short descriptions of the methods followed by various countries in computing their statistics on the subjects of cost of living [1] and unemployment.[2] Similar descriptions for the series on employment will be found below; they cover all employment series appearing in the *Review*, namely: general employment; employment in manufacturing [3] (numbers employed; total hours worked).

AFRICA

Union of South Africa

GENERAL EMPLOYMENT SERIES; MANUFACTURING EMPLOYMENT SERIES

Statistics of Establishments

Scope.

The branches of economic activity covered are mining, manufacturing, construction and transport.

The series on employment in manufacturing excludes public utilities, the South African Mint and establishments under the direct control of the Department of Defence.

The categories of employees included are wage earners, salaried staff, and working proprietors.

The figures cover all persons attached to an industry. Persons on paid vacation are included; persons on unpaid vacation and on temporary military leave are not. Persons on strike and temporarily laid off are not included unless they are being paid for time lost.

Establishments furnish particulars of the number of persons who received pay for the days to which the returns relate. The figures relate to the average number of persons who receive pay for the first four Tuesdays of each month; if a public holiday falls on a Tuesday, data are furnished for the next working day.

Annual figures are averages of monthly figures, but the data up to 1944 are derived from annual industrial census results relating to the establishments' book years ended during the year mentioned.

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[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. LVII, No. 6, June 1948, pp. 692-702, and Vol. LVIII, Nos. 1 to 5, July to November 1948, pp. 124-135, 267-277, 419-426, 562-568 and 704-709.

[2] *Idem*, Vol. LVIII, No. 6, December 1948, pp. 821-841.

[3] Previously described as "industrial employment".

The data are obtained by means of monthly enquiries conducted by the Census Office ; the proportion of employees covered is 75 to 80 per cent. in the activities in question. In 1943, additional firms were included in the sample and the previous index numbers were recalculated.

Figures adjusted for seasonal variations are not available.

The base of the index numbers is July 1935.

Publication.

Source : *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics.*

No advance press release is issued and the interval between the date of first publication and the date to which the figures relate is nine weeks in normal circumstances.

AMERICA

Canada

General Employment Series

Labour Force Sample Surveys

Scope.

The series covers all branches of economic activity.

Persons in all industrial status groups and categories are included, besides wage earners and salaried employees.

All persons who worked, or had jobs at which they did not work because of illness, bad weather, vacation, labour disputes and temporary lay-offs, are included. Persons on temporary military leave are classed with persons on vacation. With regard to persons on temporary lay-off, the lay-off must not exceed 30 days and instructions to return to work within that time must be definite.

The figures relate to persons employed during any part of the week of the survey.

When issued, annual figures are given as averages of quarterly estimates.

The survey applies to Canada's entire non-institutional population aged 14 years and over, excluding Indians on reserves and persons living in remote areas.

No changes in method have taken place since the beginning of the series (November 1945). Figures are not adjusted for seasonal variations.

Publication.

Source : Dominion Bureau of Statistics : *Labour Force Bulletin.*

An advance press release is issued approximately six weeks after the date to which the figures relate.

General Employment Series ; Manufacturing Employment Series

Statistics of Establishments

Scope.

The branches of economic activity covered are as follows : logging, mining, manufacturing, construction and maintenance, communications,

transportation, trade, finance, hotels and restaurants, laundries and dry cleaning establishments. Public utilities are included.

The series is based on the number of wage earners and salaried employees.

The figures of employed persons are limited to those receiving pay in the pay period ; they include those working during any part of the pay period ending nearest a given date.

Persons on paid vacations are included ; those on unpaid vacation are not. Persons on paid holidays are included whereas persons on unpaid holidays are included only if the holiday falls within the pay period reported. Persons on strike are not included ; persons on temporary military leave are included only if they draw pay ; the same applies to persons temporarily laid off.

Figures refer to the last pay period of the month for the various categories of employees ; in other words, they show salaries and wages paid on or about the first of the following month.

Annual figures are arithmetic averages of monthly figures.

For the industrial groups and subgroups covered by the monthly surveys in June 1941, the co-operating firms employed 79 per cent. of all employees.

The base period for index numbers is 1926.

With regard to changes in methods which have taken place since 1937, the monthly surveys were extended in 1939-1940 to include financial institutions.

Figures were formerly adjusted for seasonal variations ; they are not at present.

Publication.

Source : *Monthly Bulletin on Employment and Pay-rolls.*

No advance press release is published and the interval between the date of first publication and the date to which the index refers is two months.

United States

General Employment Series

Labour Force Sample Surveys

Scope.

The series covers all branches of economic activity.

The figures cover wage and salary workers, self-employed persons and persons working without pay on a family farm or business.

The figures include those persons who were at work during any part of the survey week or had a job from which they were temporarily absent because of strike, illness, vacation, bad weather, temporary lay-off and various other reasons.

Persons on paid or unpaid vacation or holiday, persons on strike or persons temporarily laid off are included in the series ; persons on temporary military service are not. Persons temporarily laid off are included provided that they have definite instructions to return to work within a period not exceeding 30 days after the date of lay-off, and provided also that at the time of enumeration they had not been on lay-off for a period exceeding 30 days.

Persons who worked any part of the survey week (the week including the eighth day of the month) or who had jobs or businesses from which they were temporarily absent that week are defined as employed.

In the few cases where issued, annual figures are averages of monthly figures.

All civilian non-institutional population aged 14 years and over is included in the labour force survey.

Data are published in absolute figures ; index numbers are not computed. Figures adjusted for seasonal variations are not available from the Bureau of the Census at present ; however, some work in this connection is now in progress.

Publication.

Source : Bureau of the Census : *Current Population Reports.*

Advance press releases are not issued regularly and the approximate interval between first publication and the date to which the figures relate is four weeks.

General Employment Series ; Manufacturing Employment Series

Statistics of Establishments

Scope.

Two major series are published, one on employment in non-agricultural establishments and the other on production workers in manufacturing industry.

The first series covers establishments in all non-agricultural branches of economic activity but does not reach domestic service and liberal professions.

Public utilities are not included in the series on manufacturing employment but are combined in general classifications with transportation.

Figures on wage and salaried earners are available in each industry group surveyed ; production workers' series are available separately for manufacturing and mining as well.

All persons who worked or received pay for any part of the payroll period considered are included in the series. Persons on paid vacation or holiday are included ; persons on unpaid vacation or holiday, strikers, persons on temporary military leave and persons temporarily laid off are excluded.

The payroll period considered (usually one week) is the one ending nearest the 15th of the month.

Annual averages are averages of the twelve midmonth figures.

The figures are based on direct reports from employers to the Bureau of Labor Statistics ; in some cases, these reports are collected by State agencies in co-operation with the B.L.S.

The coverage varies widely, with industrial branches having a large percentage of large establishments usually covered much more completely than branches where small firms are the rule. The percentage of total employees covered by the B.L.S. sample varied in February 1944 from 20 per cent. in wholesale trade to 91 per cent. in anthracite mining ; it was 75 per cent. in manufacturing.

Figures as at first published undergo several changes, due to adjustments in census and social security data as well as in those of other agencies.

The B.L.S. does not compute employment series adjusted for seasonal variations ; the Federal Reserve Board does, however.

Publication.

Source : Bureau of Labor Statistics : *Monthly Labor Review.*

An advance press release is published approximately four weeks after the date to which the figures refer.

Argentina

General Employment Series ; Manufacturing Employment Series [1]

Statistics of Establishments

Scope.

Information is obtained by means of questionnaires sent to 1,100 industrial establishments (private undertakings and public utilities). The weighting of the industrial branches is based on the results of the Industrial Census of 1937.

The total index is a weighted geometric average of group indices, which, in turn, are averages of individual indices.

Workers are those employed by the establishments on the last working day of the month, irrespective of possible absence through illness, leave, accident or other cause. Home workers and members of the owner's family are excluded.

Computation.

The month used as a basis for the computation of the index of total hours contains the same number of working days as the average numbers of working days per month in 1937.

The weights used in the computation of the index numbers are as follows (in percentages) : minerals, quarries and mines, 5.5 ; food, drink and tobacco, 24.4 ; textiles and textile goods, 23.8 ; paper, cardboard and products, 1.5 ; chemical and pharmaceutical products, oils and paints, 2.9 ; petroleum, coal and derivatives, 1.3 ; rubber and rubber goods, 2.2 ; leather and leather goods, 6.5 ; stone, earth, glass and pottery, 4.1 ; metals and metal goods, excluding machinery, 13.2 ; machinery and vehicles, 14.6

Publication.

Source : *Síntesis estadística mensual de la República Argentina.*

Chile

Manufacturing Employment Series

Statistics of Establishments

Scope.

Absolute figures on employment in Chile are published for agriculture, for mining and for manufacturing industry ; index numbers are published for manufacturing industry only.

The series on manufacturing employment excludes foodstuffs, wood and a few other secondary branches. Public utilities except water works are included.

Monthly indices refer to wage earners only. Yearly figures are available covering wage earners and salaried employees.

Persons on paid vacation are included ; persons on unpaid vacation are not. Strikers are not included as long as they are not paid ; in the few cases,

[1] Including series of total hours worked.

recognised by law, where they are paid, they are included in the series. Persons on military service keep their job, but since they do not receive any wage they are excluded from the employment series.

Index numbers are based on the period 1936-1938. Monthly figures refer to the middle of the month ; yearly figures are averages of monthly figures.

Coverage of the monthly indexes is approximately 10 per cent. ; coverage of yearly figures is approximately 80 per cent.

Figures adjusted for seasonal variations are not computed.

An index of man-days worked is available for the following branches : sugar, cement, beer, electricity, matches, gas, coke, cotton, wool, paper and tobacco.

Publication.

Source : *Estadística Chilena.*

No advance press release is issued ; the interval between the date of first publication and the date to which the figures refer is approximately ten days.

Colombia (Central Zone)

General Employment Series

Statistics of Establishments

Scope.

The series excludes agriculture but includes all branches of manufacturing industry as well as mining, construction, electricity and water, transport and services.

The series includes wage earners only, *i.e.*, all wage earners belonging to the particular industry, whether actually at work or not.

Persons on paid vacation or on paid holiday are included ; persons on unpaid vacation or holiday, on strike or on military service and persons temporarily laid off are excluded.

The data are based on monthly returns from 62 establishments ; they refer to the average number of wage earners employed for every day of the month.

Indices are based on May 1938 = 100 ; no change in the methods followed has been noted.

A series adjusted for seasonal variations is not available.

Publication.

Source : *Anuario General de Estadística.*

No information is available as to whether an advance press release is issued and as to the length of the interval between the date of first publication of the index and the date to which it refers.

Mexico

Manufacturing Employment Series

Statistics of Establishments

Scope.

This series covers manufacturing industry, the branches covered being as follows : vegetable oils, alcohol, rubber, sugar refining, shoes, knitting, furniture, cement, matches, breweries, cigars, canning, iron and steel,

macaroni, cotton, metal, wool, silk, soap, paper and glass. Public utilities are not included.

The series covers wage earners and salaried employees only.

The figures refer to employed persons actually at work, plus those on paid or unpaid vacation, strikers, and persons temporarily laid off; in the case of strikers and workers temporarily laid off, inclusion depends on whether they receive wages or salaries which influence costs of production.

The figures refer to the number of wage earners and salaried employees on the last day of the month, quarter or year according as the figures for the industrial branch are computed on a monthly, quarterly or yearly basis. Figures on a monthly basis are obtained for 17 industrial branches, on a quarterly basis for 6 industrial branches and on a yearly basis for 2 industrial branches.

The establishments selected are those which, on the basis of the returns of the industrial census of 1935, have a yearly production value of over 10,000 pesos, in other words, only the largest establishments in each industrial branch.

Index numbers are not computed and the figures are not adjusted for seasonal variations.

Publication.

Source: *Revista de Estadística*; *Compendio Estadístico*; and *Anuario Estadístico.*

No advance press release is issued, and the interval between the date of first publication and the date to which the figures refer is approximately three months.

Peru

General Employment Series

Statistics of Establishments

Scope.

The yearly figures of employment cover wage earners in agriculture, mining and industry; manufacturing industry covers 17 branches, including water and electricity.

The figures refer to wage earners only and include persons on paid vacation and holiday; there is no military service in Peru.

A series adjusted for seasonal variations is not computed.

Publication.

Source: *Anuario Estadístico del Perú.*

Puerto Rico

General Employment Series

Labour Force Sample Surveys

Scope.

There is no limitation in regard to the industrial coverage of the series; all branches are included.

The figures cover not only wage earners and salaried employees but also employers, self-employed persons and family helpers.

The figures refer to persons belonging to a certain industry, whether actually at work or not ; they include persons on paid or unpaid holiday or vacation, strikers and persons temporarily laid off ; persons on military service are excluded. Persons temporarily laid off are defined as those who are away from their work with instructions to return to work within 30 days.

Figures refer to the week which includes the 8th of every month. Annual figures or indices are not computed. The source of the data is a sample which covers 6,000 dwellings in 37 municipalities in Puerto Rico (or 1.5 per cent. of the total number of dwellings and one 70th of the total population of the island).

A series adjusted for seasonal variations is not available.

Publication.

Source : Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics : *Monthly Bulletin* ; Office of the Governor, Bureau of the Budget : *Monthly Statistical Report.*

An advance press release is published approximately one month after the date to which the figures refer.

Uruguay

Manufacturing Employment Series

Statistics of Establishments

Scope.

Quarterly indices of employment, based on 1936 = 100, are published separately for wage earners and salaried employees, for the following branches in manufacturing industry : stone, earth and cement ; food ; drink ; tobacco ; metals and metal products ; vehicles and means of transportation ; textiles and textile products ; clothing ; wood and wood products ; paper, cardboard and their products ; printing ; leather and leather products ; rubber and rubber products ; and chemicals.

The series covers the persons belonging to an establishment, including also those on short time or working overtime.

The establishments covered are those employing 50 workers or more and have been chosen on the basis of the results of the 1936 Industrial Census.

Questionnaires are sent to the establishments towards the end of the relevant quarter, and employers are allowed 30 days to send them in.

The figures used as a basis for the computation are monthly averages during the quarter.

Publication.

Source : *Revista de la Dirección general de Asuntos económicos.*

(To be continued)

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Book Notes

INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

Record of Proceedings. International Labour Conference, Thirtieth Session, Geneva, 1947. International Labour Office, Geneva, 1948. xi+676 pp. Boards : $6.50 ; 31s. 6d. ; paper : $5 ; 24s.

Record of Proceedings. Preparatory Asian Regional Conference of the International Labour Organisation, New Delhi, October-November 1947. International Labour Office, Geneva, 1948. xxviii+318 pp. $3 ; 15s.

Instability of Employment in the Construction Industries. Second Item on the Agenda. International Labour Organisation, Building, Civil Engineering and Public Works Committee, Second Session, 1949. Report II. International Labour Office, Geneva, 1948. 55 pp. 35 cents ; 1s. 6d.

Industrial Relations. Fourth Item on the Agenda. International Labour Organisation, Building, Civil Engineering and Public Works Committee, Second Session, 1949. Report IV. International Labour Office, Geneva, 1948. 80 pp. 50 cents ; 2s. 6d.

Reports on two of the questions which the Governing Body of the International Labour Office placed on the agenda of the second session of this industrial committee of the International Labour Organisation, thus giving effect to resolutions adopted by the committee at its first session (Brussels, November-December 1946).

Labour-Management Co-operation in United States War Production. A Study of Methods and Procedure. Studies and Reports, New Series, No. 6. International Labour Office, Montreal, 1948. vi+406 pp. ; chart. Boards : $3 ; 15s. ; paper : $2.25 ; 11s. 3d.

The purpose of this report is to describe the participation of employers' and workers' representatives in the agencies which during the second World War were directly concerned with manpower mobilisation and war production planning in the United States. The report is divided into five parts, the first of which contains a short historical summary of the evolution of such participation. Part II describes the methods of labour-management consultation in voluntary manpower mobilisation, and Part III the methods of labour-management collaboration in war production planning. The role of management and labour in various Government agencies other than the War Manpower Commission, War Production Board and related agencies is dealt with in Part IV. Finally, Part V presents comparisons of the methods used and conclusions as to their degree of effectiveness.

Training Problems in the Far East. Report on Technical and Vocational Training in the Far East, prepared for the International Labour Organisation and the United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East. By Marguerite THIBERT. Studies and Reports, New Series, No. 11. International Labour Office, Geneva, 1948. vi+160 pp. $1 ; 5s.

In response to a request from the Executive Secretary of the United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE), the Director-General of the International Labour Office agreed to lend the services of an expert of the Office to ECAFE to investigate the question of the development of vocational and technical training facilities in the region. The present report contains the results of the enquiry, which was undertaken immediately after the third session of ECAFE, held at Ootacamund in India, in June 1948.

The first chapter surveys the existing facilities, distinguishing between the pre-employment training of juveniles and the training and retraining of adult workers. Particulars of the situation in the different countries are appended to each of the two sections. In the second chapter, the facilities are discussed from the point of view of the requirements and attention is drawn to various deficiencies and obstacles to development. The concluding chapter suggests methods of overcoming these difficulties, with special reference to the role of international collaboration in this field.

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

KENYA

The Liguru and the Land. Sociological Aspects of Some Agricultural Problems of North Kavirondo. By Norman HUMPHREY. Nairobi, Government Printer, 1947. vii+82 pp. 1s.

A sympathetic survey of agricultural practices, social organisation, land tenure, division of labour, market development and food habits of the African inhabitants of a district in Kenya. The increasing pressure of population on land resources is promoting overdue reliance on maize to the neglect of livestock and the use of farmyard manure. Soil depletion is the result. Remedies are suggested in terms of education and the encouragement of tribal authorities to renew their traditional interest in the welfare of the land, an interest which tended to lapse with the introduction of a cash economy and of some European agricultural practices which were not always suited to the geographical and social climate of the area.

SWITZERLAND

L'équilibre financier de l'assurance-vieillesse et survivants. Rapport de l'Office fédéral des assurances sociales sur les conséquences financières de la loi fédérale du 20 décembre 1946. Berne, 1947. Office central fédéral des imprimés et du matériel. 174 pp., 30 tables, 36 diagrams.

This publication of the Swiss Federal Social Insurance Office explains and justifies the financial system on which the new old-age and survivors' insurance scheme is based. It summarises the records of the preparatory work for the scheme, when the dominant aim was to guarantee a balance between receipts and liabilities for as long a period as possible. The report deals chiefly with the calculations made by the mathematical and statistical section of the Federal Social Insurance Office, and is divided into six chapters : demographic bases ; economic bases ; annual yield of contribu-

tions ; annual expenditure ; annual budgets and the initial technical balance sheet ; and the variations in the basis of calculation. Appended are the report of the Committee instructed to examine the methods used by the Federal Social Insurance Office for this purpose, and a number of diagrams and tables.

The mathematical formulae have been omitted from this book, which is not intended for specialists alone, but the methods of estimation employed are none the less clearly described, and actuaries will find much of interest to them.

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

La sécurité des travailleurs par l'assurance sociale. By Antonio Julio de CASTRO FERNANDES. Lisbon, Editions S.N.I., 1947. 115 pp.

At the first session of the Superior Council of Social Welfare, on 23 December 1946, Mr. de Castro Fernandes, who is the Under-Secretary of State for Corporations and Social Welfare, made a survey of social insurance in Portugal, which is reproduced in this publication. An historical review of the growth of social insurance is followed by an analysis of the provisions now in force and statistical data on the working of the insurance institutions, and a comparison is made of Portuguese legislation on social insurance with the relevant provisions of international labour Conventions and Recommendations.

The Practice of Industrial Medicine. By T. A. LLOYD DAVIES. London, J. and A. Churchill, 1948. vii+244 pp., with 8 diagrams.

The intention of this book is to provide a guide for the education of the medical student and nurse and to help the practitioner undertaking the work of an industrial medical officer for the first time, an object which is very efficiently covered.

After a short introductory survey, there are separate chapters dealing with medical examination ; accidents, fatigue and environment ; the social functions of industry ; industrial disease and toxicology ; the hazards of coal mining (contributed by Dr. G. F. Keatinge) ; workmen's compensation and rehabilitation. References are given at the end of each of these chapters. A last, very brief chapter on "The Future" urges that "no longer must we be satisfied with making work harmless, but all our efforts must be to make work beneficial".

Proceedings of a Conference on Industrial Ophthalmology, sponsored by the Columbia University College of Physicians and Surgeons in Cooperation with the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness. 7-11 May, 1945. New York, Columbia University Press, 1947. xiv+291 pp.

The various chapters of this report deal with the visual defects found in industrial plants in the United States. It is pointed out that 95 per cent. of such defects can be improved and attention is drawn to the vital importance of such correction from the point of view of the placement of workers. Fundamentals of illumination and seeing and their practical application are described, as well as protective devices, visual screening methods, colour vision, ophthalmic effects of welding radiations, toxic hazards, industrial first aid in chemical injuries and the industrial chemicals presenting hazards to the eyes.

Each chapter concludes with a summary description of practical applications.

Las Cláusulas Económico-Sociales en las Constituciones de América. Academia de Ciencias Económicas. Vol. I : Sud América, 563 pp. ; Vol. II : América Central y del Norte, 570 pp. Buenos Aires, Editorial Losada, S.A., 1947.

These two volumes contain the texts of the Constitutions now in force in the Latin American Republics and the United States. The texts are preceded by introductory notes by experts, in which the progress of the social legislation of the different countries is studied in the light of their constitutional development. The extensive documentation contained in these books will render them most valuable for research purposes.

Books Received[1]

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Accounting Research. Vol. I, No. I. Published for the Incorporated Accountants' Research Committee. London, Cambridge University Press, 1948. 83 pp. 7s. 6d.

Costituzione della Repubblica Italiana. By Ferruccio PERGOLESI. Bologna, U.P.E.B., 1948. 62 pp.

Developments in Social Security. By Richard C. BRIDGEFORD. Melbourne, James Baird & Sons, 1948. 20 pp. (Processed.)

Inventaire économique de la France, 1948. By Georges PILLIET. Paris, Les Ordres de Chevalerie, 1948. viii+417 pp. 685 francs.

Small versus Big Business. An Industrial Experiment. By E. Beddington BEHRENS. Foreword by Sir Harold BUTLER. London, Voice & Vision Ltd., 1948. 7 pp. Illustrated.

Teamwork in Industry. By F. J. Burns MORTON. London, Chapman & Hall Ltd., 1948. xii+273 pp.

Tomorrow is Beautiful. By Lucy Robins LANG. Special Labor Edition, with introduction by William GREEN, President of the American Federation of Labor. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1948. viii+303 pp.

La seconde guerre mondiale et les déplacements de populations. By Robert GINESY. Paris, Editions A. Pedone, 1948. iii+184 pp.

ERRATUM

1948 - Vol. LVII

No. 6, December 1948. " Methods of Computation of Statistics ". Page 840, line 7 : for " at the end of 1936 " read " at the end of 1946 ".

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[1] Mention in this list does not preclude publication of a book note in a subsequent issue of the *Review*.

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